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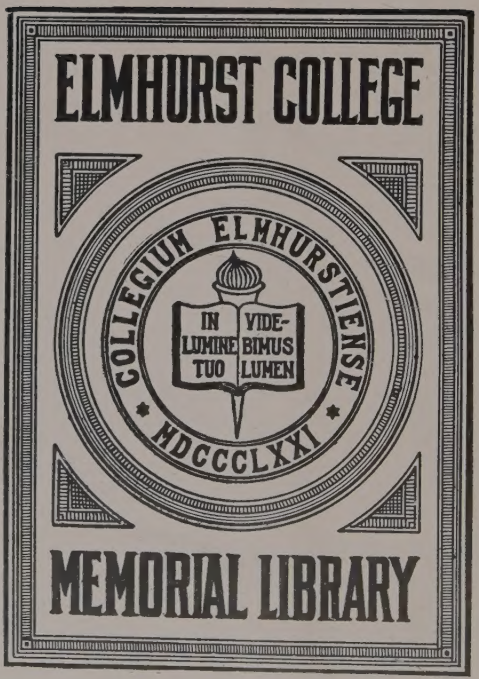
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HARPER'S ENCYCLOPAEDIA OF UNITED STATES HISTORY

FROM 458 A.D. TO 1915

NEW EDITION. ENTIRELY REVISED AND ENLARGED

BASED UPON THE PLAN OF

BENSON JOHN LOSSING, LL.D.

SOMETIME EDITOR OF "THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL RECORD" AND AUTHOR OF "THE PICTORIAL FIELD-BOOK OF THE REVOLUTION" "THE PICTORIAL FIELD-BOOK OF THE WAR OF 1812" ETC.

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VOL. X.

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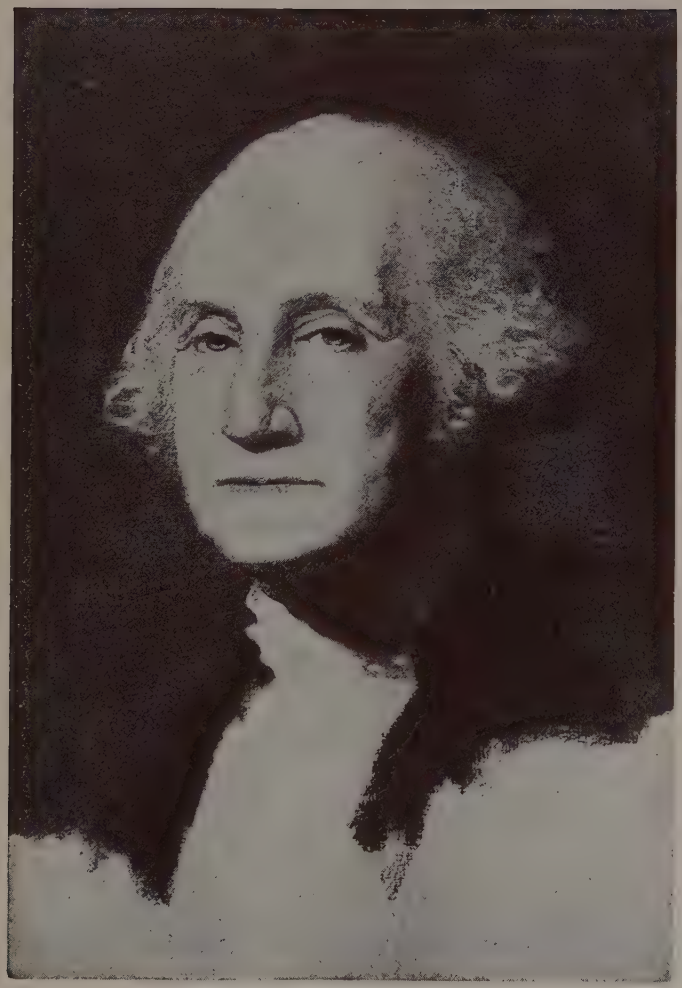


G. Washington

HARPER'S ENCYCLOPÆDIA

OF

UNITED STATES HISTORY

V.

Vaca, Cabeza de. See Cabeza de Vaca.

Vail, Alfred, inventor; born in Morristown, N. J., Sept. 25, 1807; graduated at the University of the City of New York in 1837; became interested in the experiments of Prof. Samuel F. B. Morse (*q. v.*), whom he greatly aided in the perfection of the telegraph. In 1837 he constructed a miniature telegraph-line on the plan of Morse's invention, which was pronounced practicable by a committee of Congress in 1838. On May 1, 1844, he received from Annapolis the first news message sent over telegraph-wires. His inventions include the lever and grooved roller; the alphabetical perfection of the Morse dot-and-dash system; the first combination of the horizontal lever to move a pencil, pen, or stylus; a telegraphic alphabet of dots, spaces, and dashes; and the finger-key. He also invented a printing telegraph, but took out no patent. He was assistant superintendent of the first telegraph line built. He published *The American Electro-Magnetic Telegraph.* He died in Morristown, N. J., Jan. 18, 1859.

Vail, Charles Henry, clergyman; born in Tully, N. Y., April 28, 1866; graduated at St. Lawrence University, Canton, in 1892; and later studied theology. He was nominated for governor of New Jersey by the Social Democratic party in 1901. He wrote *Modern Socialism; Socialism: What It Is and What It Is Not; The Trust Question; National Ownership of Railways; Scientific Socialism; The Industrial Evolution; Mission of the Working Class; The Socialist Movement; Socialism and the Negro Problem,* etc.

Vail, Stephen, manufacturer; born near Morristown, N. J., June 28, 1780; received a common-school education; became owner of the Speedwell iron-works near Morristown, N. J., in 1804, where the engine of the *Savannah,* the first steamship that crossed the Atlantic, was built. He contributed money to aid Professor Morse in the construction of the electric telegraph, and the first practical exhibition of the new invention was made at his works. He died in Morristown, N. J., June 12, 1864.

Vail, Stephen Montford, clergyman; born in Union Dale, Westchester county, N. Y., Jan. 10, 1818; graduated at Bowdoin College in 1838, and at the Union Theological Seminary in 1842; professor of languages in Amenia Seminary in 1843; professor of Oriental languages in the General Biblical Institute, Concord, N. H., in 1849; and became United States consul for Rhenish Bavaria in 1869. He published essays on slavery and church polity. He died in Jersey City, N. J., Nov. 26, 1880.

Vail, Theodore Newton; born in Carroll County, Ohio, July 16, 1845; connected with the United States Mail Service, 1873–78; in telephone business, 1878–87; introduced electrical services in South America; president of the American Telephone and Telegraph Co., New York Telephone Co., Western Union Tele-

graph Co. He has perfected both telephone and telegraph services.

Vale, GILBERT, author; born in London, England, in 1788; received a classical education; came to the United States in 1829; engaged in literary work in New York and Brooklyn. He wrote the *Life of Thomas Paine.* He died in Brooklyn, N. Y., Aug. 17, 1866.

Vale-Blake, EUPHEMIA, author; born in Rye, Sussex, England, May 7, 1824; came to the United States early in life; received a private education; and married Daniel S. Blake in 1863. She wrote *History of Newburyport, Mass.; Arctic Experiences,* etc. She died in Brooklyn, N. Y., Oct. 21, 1904.

Valentine, DAVID THOMAS, historian; born in East Chester, N. Y., Sept. 15, 1801; received an academic education; removed to New York City in 1817; appointed clerk to the marine court in 1823; was deputy clerk to the common council in 1831–37; published an annual *Manual of the Corporation and Common Council of New York* in 1842–67, which is highly prized for its historical collections. He also wrote a *History of New York* (2 vols.). He died in New York City, Feb. 25, 1869.

Valentine, EDWARD VIRGINIUS, sculptor; born in Richmond, Va., Nov. 12, 1838; studied drawing and modelling in Richmond, and went to Paris for further study in 1859. Among his works are portrait busts of General Beauregard, Gen. James E. B. Stuart, "Stonewall" Jackson, Edwin Booth, Mathew F. Maury, John V. Minor, Prof. Randolph Tucker, Gen. John S. Mosby, Gen. Albert S. Johnston, and other Southerners; a marble statue of Thomas Jefferson at Richmond, Va., a marble figure of Gen. Robert E. Lee; heroic bronze statue of Jefferson Davis at Richmond; bronze statue of Gen. Hugh Mercer for the federal government; one of Gen. Robert E. Lee for Statuary Hall, Washington; several classic groups, etc.

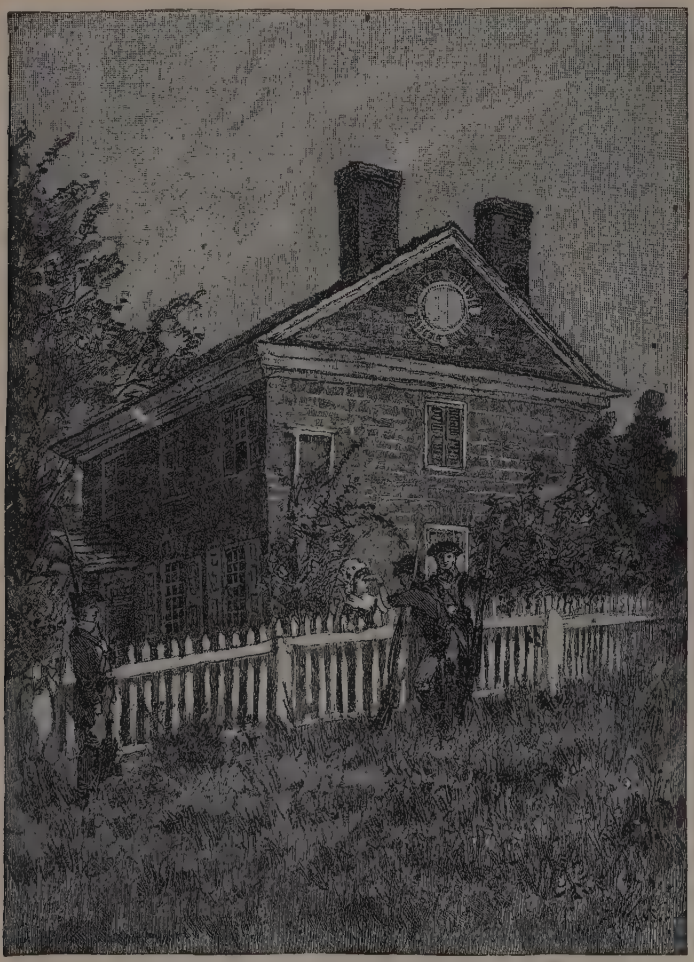
Vallandigham, CLEMENT LAIRD, legislator; born in New Lisbon, O., July 29, 1820; was of Huguenot descent; studied at Jefferson College, Ohio; was principal of an academy at Snow Hill, Md.; and was admitted to the bar in 1842. In 1845–46 he was a member of the State legislature, and for ten years afterwards edited the Dayton *Empire.* An earnest Democratic politician, he was sent to Congress in 1857, in which body he was active until 1863, opposing all war measures of the government, and openly showing sympathy with the Confederates. He was arrested at his own house, near Dayton, May 4, 1863, under a military order, on a charge of "treasonable conduct." He was tried by a court-martial at Cincinnati, convicted, and sentenced to close confinement in a fortress for the remainder of the war. This sentence was modified by President Lincoln, who directed him to be sent within the Confederate lines, and, in the event of his returning

CLEMENT L. VALLANDIGHAM.

without leave, to suffer the penalty prescribed by the court. On his release he went to Canada, and while there was the Democratic candidate for governor of Ohio in 1863, but was defeated by John Brough by 100,000 majority. He was permitted to return to his home, and was a member of the national Democratic conventions in Chicago in 1864 and in New York in 1868. While engaged in a suit in court in Lebanon, O., he was mortally wounded by a pistol which he was handling in explaining an alleged fact to the jury, and died there, June 17, 1871.

Valley Forge. Washington's army encamped at Whitemarsh, in a beautiful valley about 14 miles from Philadelphia, where he remained until Dec. 11, 1777, and proceeded with his half-clad, half-bare-

footed soldiers to Valley Forge, about 20 miles northward from Philadelphia. These numbered about 11,000 men, of whom not more than 7,000 were fit for field duty. winding Schuylkill, they were encamped, with no shelter but rude log huts which they built themselves. The winter that ensued was severe. The soldiers shivered with



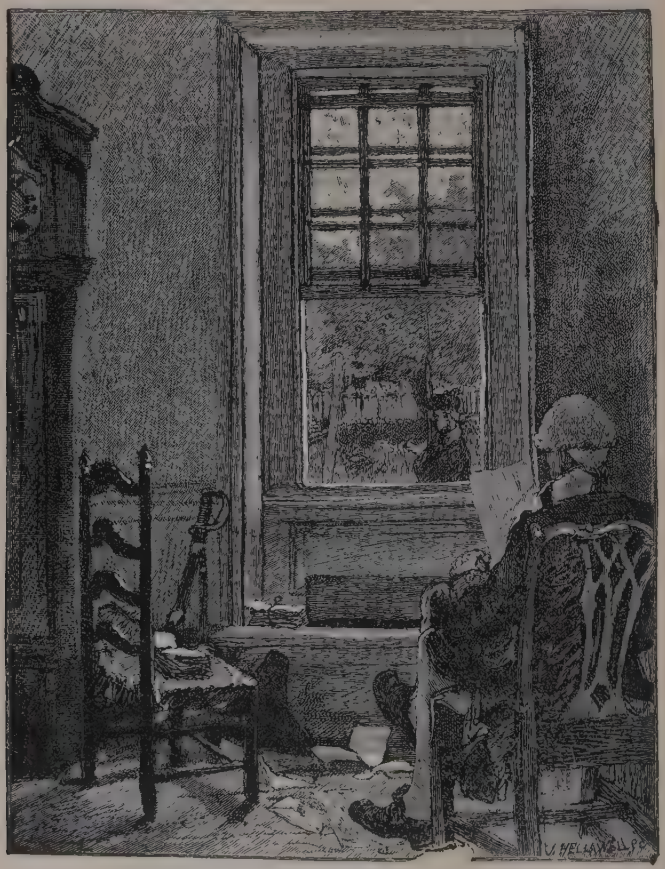
WASHINGTON'S HEADQUARTERS AT VALLEY FORGE.

The place was chosen because it was farther from the danger of sudden attacks from the foe, and where he might more easily afford protection for the Congress sitting at York. Blood-stains, made by the lacerated feet of his barefooted soldiers, marked the line of their march to Valley Forge. There, upon the slopes of a narrow valley on the borders of the cold and starved with hunger, and there their genuine patriotism was fully tested.

The British under Howe had full possession of Philadelphia and of the Delaware below, and Pennsylvania was divided among its people and in its legislature by political factions. General uneasiness prevailed; and when Washington sought refuge at Valley Forge, the Pennsylvania

legislature adopted a remonstrance against that measure. To this cruel missive Washington replied, after censuring the quartermaster-general (Mifflin), a Pennsylvanian, for neglect of duty: "For the want of a two-days supply of provisions, an opportunity scarcely ever offered of taking an advantage of the enemy that has not been either totally obstructed or greatly impeded. Men are confined in hospitals or in farmers' houses for want of shoes. We have this day [Dec. 23] no less than 2,873 men in camp unfit for duty because they are barefooted and otherwise naked. Our whole strength in Continental troops amounts to no more than 8,200 in camp fit for duty. Since the 4th inst., our numbers fit for duty, from hardships and exposures, have decreased nearly 2,000 men. Numbers are still obliged to sit all night by fires. Gentlemen reprobate going into winter-quarters as much as if they thought the soldiers were made of sticks or stones. I can assure those gentlemen that it is a much easier and less distressing thing to draw remonstrances in a comfortable room by a good fireside than to occupy a cold, bleak hill, and sleep under frost and snow without clothes or blankets. However, although they seem to have little feeling for the naked and distressed soldiers, I feel superabundantly for them; and from my soul I pity those miseries which it is neither in my power to relieve nor prevent."

At the same time the British army was



WASHINGTON'S PRIVATE OFFICE AT VALLEY FORGE

OLD BRIDGE AT VALLEY FORGE.

made as weak by indulgence in the city as were the American soldiers by physical privations, and Franklin was justified in saying, "Howe did not take Philadelphia; Philadelphia took Howe." At Valley Forge Baron Steuben entered upon his duties as inspector-general of the Continental army. There the joyful news reached the American army of a treaty of alliance with France. It was promulgated by Washington in general orders on May 6, 1778. He set apart the next day as one of rejoicing and grateful acknowledgment of the divine goodness in raising up a powerful friend "in one of the princes of the earth." It was celebrated with tokens of delight. The several brigades were drawn up to hear discourses by their respective chaplains. The men were placed in specified positions to fire a *feu de joie* with muskets and cannon—three times three discharges of thirteen cannon. At the first the army huzzaed, "Long live the King of France"; at the second, "Long live the friendly European powers"; and at the third there was a shout, "The American States." Washington and his wife, and other officers and their wives, attended the religious services of the New Jersey brigade. Then the commander-in-chief dined in public with all the officers. Patriotic toasts were given, and loud huzzas greeted Washington when he left the table. As the season advanced comforts abounded at Valley Forge, the army increased, and on June 18 the encampment broke up and the army began a chase of the British across New Jersey when the latter had evacuated Philadelphia.

A patriotic movement has been started to have the site of the Valley Forge encampment preserved as a public reservation, and on Oct. 19, 1901, the Daughters of the Revolution dedicated there a monument to the memory of the revolutionary soldiers who died during the encampment. The monument is a handsome obelisk of granite, 50 feet high, and at its base appear two bronze panels, one containing the seal of the society and the other representing a scene of camp-life at Valley Forge. Above these the original colonial flag with thirteen stars has been carved in the shaft. The inscription reads: "To the Soldiers of Washington's Army who Sleep in Valley Forge, 1777–78."

Valverde, BATTLE AT. General Canby, commander of the Department of New Mexico, was at Fort Craig, on the Rio Grande, early in 1862. At that time Col. H. H. Sibley, a Louisianian, had invaded New Mexico with 2,300 Texas Rangers, many of them veterans who had fought the Indians. Sibley issued a proclamation demanding from the inhabitants aid for and allegiance to his troops. Feeling confident of success, he moved towards Fort Craig to attack Canby. His light field-pieces could not injure the fort, so he crossed the Rio Grande below and out of reach of the guns of the fort for the purpose of drawing Canby out. In this he was successful. Canby threw a force across the river to occupy an eminence commanding the fort, which it was thought Sibley might attempt to gain. There a skirmish ensued, and the Nationals retired to the fort. On the following day (Feb. 21) a considerable force of cavalry, artillery, and infantry, under Lieutenant-Colonel Roberts, crossed the

river, and at Valverde, 7 miles north of the fort, a severe battle occurred. Canby was about to make a general advance, when about 1,000 Texans, horse and foot, armed with carbines, revolvers, and bowie-knives, suddenly burst from a thick wood and attacked two of the National batteries, commanded respectively by Captains McRae and Hall. The cavalry were repulsed, but the infantry pressed forward, while the grape-shot were making fearful lanes in their ranks, and captured the battery of McRae. The brave captain defended his guns with great courage. Seated upon one of them, he fought the assailants with a pistol until he was shot dead. At length the Nationals, panic-stricken by the fierceness of the charge, broke and fled, and did not stop until they had reached the shelter of Fort Craig. That flight was one of the most disgraceful scenes of the war. Canby was compelled to see the victory snatched from him just as it seemed to be secured. Sibley, alarmed by the sudden development of Canby's strength by accessions to his ranks, hurried towards Santa Fé, captured it, but could not hold it, and was soon afterwards driven over the mountains into Texas.

Van Arsdale, JOHN, military officer; born in Goshen, Orange co., N. Y., Jan. 5, 1756; served throughout the Revolutionary War, first as sergeant and then as captain. He suffered unusual privation and hardship in the expedition against Quebec; was wounded and taken prisoner at the capture of Fort Montgomery and Fort Clinton; and subsequently was engaged in the war against the Indians. He died in New York City, Aug. 14, 1836.

Van Brunt, GERSHOM JAQUES, naval officer; born in Monmouth county, N. J., Aug. 28, 1798; entered the navy as midshipman in 1818; served in Com. David Porter's "Mosquito fleet" against pirates in the West Indies; was made lieutenant in 1827; had command of the brig *Etna* during the Mexican War; and took part in the expedition against Tuspan and in the second expedition against Tobasco. He was a commissioner to survey the boundary-line of California in 1848–50; was promoted captain in 1855; in the Civil War had command of the *Minnesota* and was active in the operations in the North Carolina Sound and in the blockade of Hampton Roads, where he saved his ship from the Confederate ram, *Merrimac;* and was promoted commodore in 1862. He died in Dedham, Mass., Dec. 17, 1863.

Van Buren, ABRAHAM, military officer; born in Kinderhook, N. Y., Nov. 27, 1807; son of President Martin Van Buren; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1827; served on the Western frontier for two years; aide-de-camp to Gen. Alexander Macomb for seven years, made captain in the 1st Dragoons in 1836; and became private secretary to his father the same year. He re-entered the army at the beginning of the Mexican War as major and paymaster; was with Gen. Zachary Taylor at Monterey, and with General Scott in every engagement from Vera Cruz to the capture of the City of Mexico. He was brevetted lieutenant-colonel for bravery at Contreras and Churubusco in 1847, and served in the paymaster's department till 1854, when he resigned. He died in New York City, March 15, 1873.

Van Buren, JOHN, lawyer; born in Hudson, N. Y., Feb. 18, 1810; son of President Martin Van Buren; graduated at Yale College in 1828; admitted to the bar in Albany, N. Y., in 1830; attorney-general of New York State in 1845–46; and for the remainder of his life practised law. He was known as "Prince John," from his imposing figure and manners. He died at sea, Oct. 13, 1866.

VAN BUREN, MARTIN

Van Buren, MARTIN, eighth President of the United States, from March 4, 1837, to March 4, 1841; Democrat; born in Kinderhook, N. Y., Dec. 5, 1782; was educated at the village academy; studied law with William P. Van Ness; and was admitted to the bar in 1803. Having a taste for politics, he early engaged in it, being a member of a nominating convention when he was eighteen years of age. In

1808 he was appointed surrogate of Columbia county, and was sent to the State Senate in 1812. From 1815 to 1819 he was attorney-general of the State of New York; and was again Senator in 1816, holding both offices at the same time. He began a new organization of the Democratic party in 1818, and became the leader of a body of politicians known as the ALBANY REGENCY (*q. v.*). It held the political control of the State for nearly twenty years. Mr. Van Buren was elected to the United States Senate in 1821, and was also in the convention that revised the State constitution. In the latter body he was favorable to the extension of the elective franchise, but not of universal suffrage. He opposed a proposition to deprive colored people of the elective franchise, but voted in favor of requiring of them a freehold qualification of $250. He was again elected United States Senator in 1827; governor of New York in 1828; entered Jackson's cabinet as Secretary of State in March, 1829; but resigned in 1831, when he was appointed minister to England. He arrived there in September, but in December the Senate rejected his nomination, and he returned.

In May, 1832, he was nominated for Vice-President by the convention that renominated Andrew Jackson for the Presidency. He received all the electoral votes that were cast for Jackson excepting Pennsylvania. In 1836 he was elected President by 170 votes out of 283, and he was inaugurated March 4, 1837. The business of the country was in a depressed state during most of his administration, and his political opponents, unfairly holding him responsible for the grievance, accomplished his defeat at the next Presidential election. When his name was proposed at the Democratic nominating convention at Baltimore in 1844 as a candidate for the Presidency, it was rejected, because Mr. Van Buren was opposed to the annexation of Texas to the Union. In 1848, when the Democrats had nominated General Cass to please the slave-holders, the friends of Mr. Van Buren, in convention at Buffalo, adopting as their political creed a phase of anti-slavery, nominated him as a Free-soil candidate for the Presidency, with Charles Francis Adams, of Massachusetts, for Vice-President. In accepting the nomination, Mr. Van Buren declared his full assent to the anti-slavery principles of the platform. The convention declared that Congress had "no more power to make a slave than to make a king" and that it was the duty of the national government to relieve itself of "all responsibility for the existence or continuance of slavery wherever the government possessed constitutional authority to legislate on that subject." General Taylor, candidate of the Whigs, was elected. Mr. Van Buren made a tour in Europe (1853–55). On the outbreak of the Civil War he took decided ground in favor of the national government. He died in Kinderhook, N. Y., July 24, 1862.

The Treasury and the Panic.—The following is the text of President Van Buren's message to the Congress on the grave financial situation of the country:

WASHINGTON, *Sept. 4, 1837.*

Fellow-Citizens of the Senate and House of Representatives,—The act of June 23, 1836, regulating the deposits of the public money and directing the employment of State, District, and Territorial banks for that purpose, made it the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury to discontinue the use of such of them as should at any time refuse to redeem their notes in specie, and to substitute other banks, provided a sufficient number could be obtained to receive the public deposits upon the terms and conditions therein prescribed. The general and almost simultaneous suspension of specie payments by the banks in May last rendered the performance of this duty imperative in respect to those which had been selected under the act, and made it at the same time impracticable to employ the requisite number of others upon the prescribed conditions. The specific regulations established by Congress for the deposit and safe-keeping of the public moneys having thus unexpectedly become inoperative, I felt it to be my duty to afford you an early opportunity for the exercise of your supervisory powers over the subject.

I was also led to apprehend that the suspension of specie payments, increasing the embarrassments before existing in the pecuniary affairs of the country, would so

far diminish the public revenue that the accruing receipts into the treasury would not, with the reserved five millions, be sufficient to defray the unavoidable expenses of the government until the usual period for the meeting of Congress, while the authority to call upon the States for a portion of the sums deposited with them was too restricted to enable the department to realize a sufficient amount from that source. These apprehensions have been justified by subsequent results, which render it certain that this deficiency will occur if additional means be not provided by Congress.

The difficulties experienced by the mercantile interest in meeting their engagements induced them to apply to me previously to the actual suspension of specie payments for indulgence upon their bonds for duties, and all the relief authorized by law was promptly and cheerfully granted. The dependence of the treasury upon the avails of these bonds to enable it to make the deposits with the States required by law led me in the outset to limit this indulgence to Sept. 1, but it has since been extended to Oct. 1, that the matter might be submitted to your further direction.

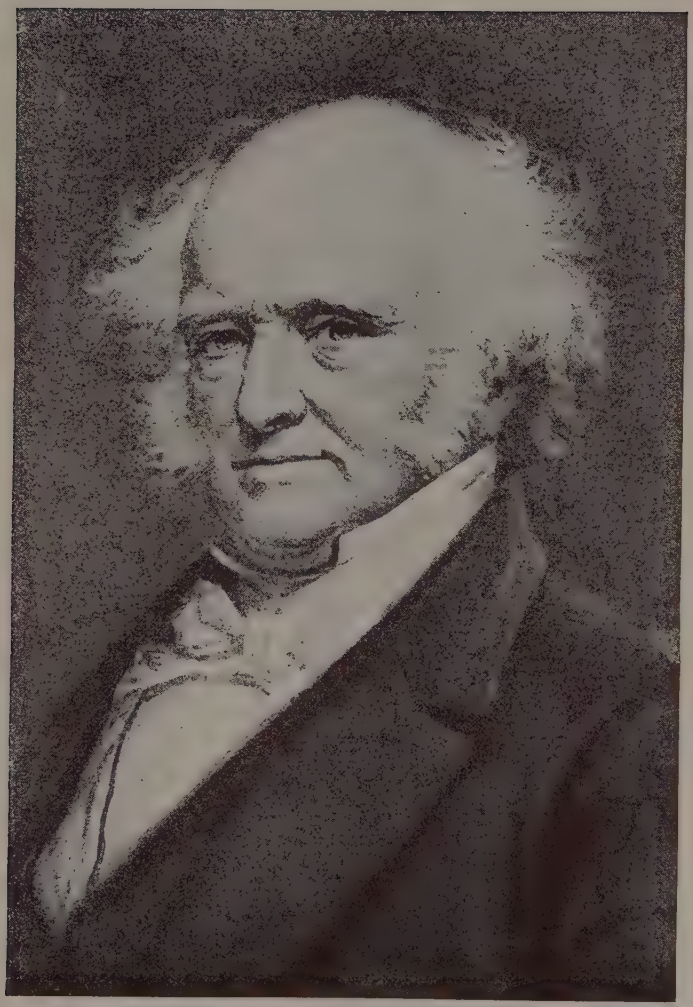
Questions were also expected to arise in the recess in respect to the October instalment of those deposits requiring the interposition of Congress.

A provision of another act, passed about the same time, and intended to secure a faithful compliance with the obligation of the United States to satisfy all demands upon them in specie or its equivalent, prohibited the offer of any bank-note not convertible on the spot into gold or silver at the will of the holder; and the ability of the government, with millions on deposit, to meet its engagements in the manner thus required by law was rendered very doubtful by the event to which I have referred.

Sensible that adequate provisions for these unexpected exigencies could only be made by Congress; convinced that some of them would be indispensably necessary to the public service before the regular period of your meeting, and desirous also to enable you to exercise at the earliest moment your full constitutional powers for the relief of the country, I could not with propriety avoid subjecting you to the inconvenience of assembling at as early a day as the state of the popular representation would permit. I am sure that I have done but justice to your feelings in believing that this inconvenience will be cheerfully encountered in the hope of rendering your meeting conducive to the good of the country.

During the earlier stages of the revulsion through which we have just passed much acrimonious discussion arose and great diversity of opinion existed as to its real causes. This was not surprising. The operations of credit are so diversified and the influences which affect them so numerous, and often so subtle, that even impartial and well-informed persons are seldom found to agree in respect to them. To inherent difficulties were also added other tendencies which were by no means favorable to the discovery of truth. It was hardly to be expected that those who disapproved the policy of the government in relation to the currency would, in the excited state of public feeling produced by the occasion, fail to attribute to that policy any extensive embarrassment in the monetary affairs of the country. The matter thus became connected with the passions and conflicts of party; opinions were more or less affected by political considerations, and differences were prolonged which might otherwise have been determined by an appeal to facts, by the exercise of reason, or by mutual concession. It is, however, a cheering reflection that circumstances of this nature cannot prevent a community so intelligent as ours from ultimately arriving at correct conclusions. Encouraged by the firm belief of this truth, I proceed to state my views, so far as may be necessary to a clear understanding of the remedies I feel it my duty to propose and of the reasons by which I have been led to recommend them.

The history of trade in the United States for the last three or four years affords the most convincing evidence that our present condition is chiefly to be attributed to overaction in all the departments of business—an overaction deriving, perhaps, its first impulses from antecedent causes, but stimulated to its destructive consequences by excessive issues of bank-paper



M Van Buren

and by other facilities for the acquisition and enlargement of credit. At the commencement of the year 1834 the banking capital of the United States, including that of the national bank, then existing, amounted to about $200,000,000, the banknotes then in circulation to about $95,000,000, and the loans and discounts of the banks to $324,000,000. Between that time and Jan. 1, 1836, being the latest period to which accurate accounts have been received, our banking capital was increased to more than $251,000,000, our paper circulation to more than $140,000,000, and the loans and discounts to more than $457,000,000. To this vast increase are to be added the many millions of credit acquired by means of foreign loans, contracted by the States and State institutions, and, above all, by the lavish accommodations extended by foreign dealers to our merchants.

The consequences of this redundancy of credit and of the spirit of reckless speculation engendered by it were a foreign debt contracted by our citizens estimated in March last at more than $30,000,000; the extension to traders in the interior of our country of credits for supplies greatly beyond the wants of the people; the investment of $39,500,000 in unproductive public lands in the years 1835 and 1836, while in the preceding year the sales amounted to only $4,500,000; the creation of debts, to an almost countless amount, for real estate in existing or anticipated cities and villages, equally unproductive, and at prices now seen to have been greatly disproportionate to their real value; the expenditure of immense sums in improvements which in many cases have been found to be ruinously improvident; the diversion to other pursuits of much of the labor that should have been applied to agriculture, thereby contributing to the expenditure of large sums in the importation of grain from Europe—an expenditure which, amounting in 1834 to about $250,000, was in the first two quarters of the present year increased to more than $2,000,000; and finally, without enumerating other injurious results, the rapid growth among all classes, and especially in our great commercial towns, of luxurious habits founded too often on merely fancied wealth, and detrimental alike to the industry, the resources, and the morals of our people.

It was so impossible that such a state of things could long continue that the prospect of revulsion was present to the minds of considerate men before it actually came. None, however, had correctly anticipated its severity. A concurrence of circumstances inadequate of themselves to produce such wide-spread and calamitous embarrassments tended so greatly to aggravate them that they cannot be overlooked in considering their history. Among these may be mentioned, as most prominent, the great loss of capital sustained by our commercial emporium in the fire of December, 1835—a loss the effects of which were underrated at the time because postponed for a season by the great facilities of credit then existing; the disturbing effects in our commercial cities of the transfers of the public moneys required by the deposit law of June, 1836, and the measures adopted by the foreign creditors of our merchants to reduce their debts and to withdraw from the United States a large portion of our specie.

However unwilling any of our citizens may heretofore have been to assign to these causes the chief instrumentality in producing the present state of things, the developments subsequently made the actual condition of other commercial countries must, as it seems to me, dispel all remaining doubts upon the subject. It has since appeared that evils similar to those suffered by ourselves have been experienced in Great Britain, on the Continent, and, indeed, throughout the commercial world, and that in other countries as well as in our own they have been uniformly preceded by an undue enlargement of the boundaries of the trade, prompted, as with us, by unprecedented expansions of the systems of credit. A reference to the amount of banking capital and the issues of paper credits out in circulation in Great Britain, by banks and in other ways, during the years 1834, 1835, and 1836, will show an augmentation of the paper currency there as much disproportioned to the real wants of trade as in the United States. With this redundancy of the paper currency there arose in that country also a spirit of adventurous speculation embracing the

whole range of human enterprise. Aid was profusely given to projected improvements; large investments were made in foreign stocks and loans; credits for goods were granted with unbounded liberality to merchants in foreign countries; and all the means of acquiring and employing credit were put in active operation and extended in their effects to every department of business and to every quarter of the globe. The reaction was proportioned in its violence to the extraordinary character of the events which preceded it. The commercial community of Great Britain were subjected to the greatest difficulties, and their debtors in this country were not only suddenly deprived of accustomed and expected credits, but called upon for payments which in the actual posture of things here could only be made through a general pressure and at the most ruinous sacrifices.

In view of these facts it would seem impossible for sincere inquirers after truth to resist the conviction that the causes of the revulsion in both countries have been substantially the same. Two nations, the most commercial in the world, enjoying but recently the highest degree of apparent prosperity and maintaining with each other the closest relations are suddenly, in a time of profound peace and without any great national disaster, arrested in their career and plunged into a state of embarrassment and distress. In both countries we have witnessed the same redundancy of paper money and other facilities of credit; the same spirit of speculation; the same partial successes; the same difficulties and reverses, and at length nearly the same overwhelming catastrophe. The most material difference between the results in the two countries has only been that with us there has also occurred an extensive derangement in the fiscal affairs of the federal and State governments, occasioned by the suspension of specie payments by the banks.

The history of these causes and effects in Great Britain and the United States is substantially the history of the revulsion in all other commercial countries.

The present and visible effects of these circumstances on the operations of the government and on the industry of the people point out the objects which call for your immediate attention.

They are: to regulate by law the safe keeping, transfer, and disbursement of the public moneys; to designate the funds to be received and paid by the government; to enable the treasury to meet promptly every demand upon it; to prescribe the terms of indulgence and the mode of settlement to be adopted, as well in collecting from individuals the revenue that has accrued as in withdrawing it from former depositories; and to devise and adopt such further measures, within the constitutional competency of Congress, as will be best calculated to revive the enterprise and to promote the prosperity of the country.

For the deposit, transfer, and disbursement of the revenue, national and State banks have always, with temporary and limited exceptions, been theretofore employed; but although advocates of each system are still to be found, it is apparent that the events of the last few months have greatly augmented the desire, long existing among the people of the United States, to separate the fiscal operations of the government from those of individuals or corporations.

Again to create a national bank as a fiscal agent would be to disregard the popular will, twice solemnly and unequivocally expressed. On no question of domestic policy is there stronger evidence that the sentiments of a large majority are deliberately fixed, and I cannot concur with those who think they see in recent events a proof that these sentiments are, or a reason that they should be, changed.

Events similar in their origin and character have heretofore frequently occurred without producing any such change, and the lessons of experience must be forgotten if we suppose that the present overthrow of credit would have been prevented by the existence of a national bank. Proneness to excessive issues has ever been the vice of the banking system—a vice as prominent in national as in State institutions. This propensity is as subservient to the advancement of private interests in the one as in the other, and those who direct them both, being principally guided by the same views and in-

fluenced by the same motives, will be equally ready to stimulate extravagance of enterprise by improvidence of credit. How strikingly is this conclusion sustained by experience! The Bank of the United States, with the vast powers conferred on it by Congress, did not or could not prevent former and similar embarrassments, nor has the still greater strength it has been said to possess under its present charter enabled it in the existing emergency to check other institutions or even to save itself. In Great Britain where it has been seen the same causes have been attended with the same effects, a national bank possessing powers far greater than are asked for by the warmest advocates of such an institution here has also proved unable to prevent an undue expansion of credit, and the evils that flow from it. Nor can I find any tenable ground for the re-establishment of a national bank in the derangement alleged at present to exist in the domestic exchanges of the country or in the facilities it may be capable of affording them. Although advantages of this sort were anticipated when the first Bank of the United States was created, they were regarded as an incidental accommodation, not one which the federal government was bound or could be called upon to furnish. This accommodation is now, indeed, after the lapse of not many years, demanded from it as among its first duties, and an omission to aid and regulate commercial exchanges is treated as a ground of loud and serious complaint. Such results only serve to exemplify the constant desire among some of our citizens to enlarge the powers of the government and extend its control to subjects with which it should not interfere. They can never justify the creation of an institution to promote such objects. On the contrary, they justly excite among the community a more diligent inquiry into the character of those operations of trade towards which it is desired to extend such peculiar favors.

The various transactions which bear the name of domestic exchanges differ essentially in their nature, operation, and utility. One class of them consists of bills of exchange drawn for the purpose of transferring actual capital from one part of the country to another, or to anticipate the proceeds of property actually transmitted. Bills of this description are highly useful in the movements of trade and well deserve all the encouragement which can rightfully be given to them. Another class is made up of bills of exchange not drawn to transfer actual capital nor on the credit of property transmitted, but to create fictitious capital, partaking at once of the character of notes discounted in bank and of bank-notes in circulation, and swelling the mass of paper credits to a vast extent in the most objectionable manner. These bills have formed for the last few years a large proportion of what are termed the domestic exchanges of the country, serving as the means of usurious profit and constituting the most unsafe and precarious paper in circulation. This species of traffic, instead of being upheld, ought to be discountenanced by the government and the people.

In transferring its funds from place to place the government is on the same footing with the private citizen and may resort to the same legal means. It may do so through the medium of bills drawn by itself or purchased from others; and in these operations it may, in a manner undoubtedly constitutional and legitimate, facilitate and assist exchanges of individuals founded on real transactions of trade. The extent to which this may be done and the best means of effecting it are entitled to the fullest consideration. This has been bestowed by the Secretary of the Treasury, and his views will be submitted to you in his report.

But it was not designed by the Constitution that the government should assume the management of domestic or foreign exchange. It is indeed authorized to regulate by law the commerce between the States and to provide a general standard of value or medium of exchange in gold and silver, but it is not its province to aid individuals in the transfer of their funds otherwise than through the facilities afforded by the Post-office Department. As justly might it be called on to provide for the transportation of their merchandise. These are operations of trade. They ought to be conducted by those who are interested in them in the same manner that the incidental difficulties of other

pursuits are encountered by other classes of citizens. Such aid has not been deemed necessary in other countries. Throughout Europe the domestic as well as the foreign exchanges are carried on by private houses, often, if not generally, without the assistance of banks; yet they extend throughout distinct sovereignties, and far exceed in amount the real exchanges of the United States. There is no reason why our own may not be conducted in the same manner with equal cheapness and safety. Certainly this might be accomplished if it were favored by those most deeply interested; and few can doubt that their own interest, as well as the general welfare of the country, would be promoted by leaving such a subject in the hands of those to whom it properly belongs. A system founded on private interest, enterprise, and competition, without the aid of legislative grants or regulations by law, would rapidly prosper; it would be free from the influence of political agitation and extend the same exemption to trade itself, and it would put an end to those complaints of neglect, partiality, injustice, and oppression, which are the unavoidable results of interference by the government in the proper concerns of individuals. All former attempts on the part of the government to carry its legislation in this respect further than was designed by the Constitution have in the end proved injurious, and have served only to convince the great body of the people more and more of the certain dangers of blending private interests with the operations of public business; and there is no reason to suppose that a repetition of them now would be more successful.

It cannot be concealed that there exist in our community opinions and feelings on this subject in direct opposition to each other. A large portion of them, combining great intelligence, activity, and influence, are no doubt sincere in their belief that the operations of trade ought to be assisted by such a connection; they regard a national bank as necessary for this purpose, and they are disinclined to every measure that does not tend sooner or later to the establishment of such an institution. On the other hand, a majority of the people are believed to be irreconcilably opposed to that measure; they consider such a concentration of power dangerous to their liberties, and many of them regard it as a violation of the Constitution. This collision of opinion has doubtless caused much of the embarrassment to which the commercial transactions of the country have lately been exposed. Banking has become a political topic of the highest interest, and trade has suffered in the conflict of parties. A speedy termination of this state of things, however desirable, is scarcely to be expected. We have seen for nearly half a century that those who advocate a national bank, by whatever motive they may be influenced, constitute a portion of our community too numerous to allow us to hope for an early abandonment of their favorite plan. On the other hand, they must indeed form an erroneous estimate of the intelligence and temper of the American people who suppose that they have continued on slight or insufficient grounds their perversing opposition to such an institution, or that they can be induced by pecuniary pressure or by any other combination of circumstances to surrender principles they have so long and so inflexibly maintained.

My own views of the subject are unchanged. They have been repeatedly and unreservedly announced to my fellow-citizens, who with full knowledge of them conferred upon me the two highest offices of the government. On the last of these occasions I felt it due to the people to apprise them distinctly that in the event of my election I would not be able to cooperate in the re-establishment of a national bank. To these sentiments I have now only to add the expression of an increased conviction that the re-establishment of such a bank in any form, while it would not accomplish the beneficial purpose promised by its advocates, would impair the rightful supremacy of the popular will, injure the character and diminish the influence of our political system, and bring once more into existence a concentrated moneyed power, hostile to the spirit and threatening the permanency of our republican institutions.

Local banks have been employed for the deposit and distribution of the revenue at all times partially and on three differ-

ent occasions exclusively: First, anterior to the establishment of the first bank of the United States; secondly, in the interval between the termination of that institution and the charter of its successor; and thirdly, during the limited period which has now so abruptly closed. The connection thus repeatedly attempted proved unsatisfactory on each successive occasion, notwithstanding the various measures which were adopted to facilitate or insure its success. On the last occasion, in the year 1835, the employment of the State banks was guarded especially, in every way which experience and caution could suggest. Personal security was required for the safe-keeping and prompt payment of the moneys to be received, and full returns of their condition were from time to time to be made by the depositories. In the first stages the measure was eminently successful, notwithstanding the violent opposition of the Bank of the United States, and the unceasing efforts made to overthrow it. The selected banks performed with fidelity and without any embarrassment to themselves or to the community their engagements to the government, and the system promised to be permanently useful; but when it becomes necessary, under the act of June, 1836, to withdraw from them the public money for the purpose of placing it in additional institutions or of transferring it to the States, they found it in many cases inconvenient to comply with the demands of the treasury, and numerous and pressing applications were made for indulgence or relief. As the instalments under the deposit law became payable their own embarrassments and the necessity under which they lay of curtailing their discounts and calling in their debts increased the general distress, and contributed with other causes to hasten the revulsion in which at length they, in common with the other banks, were fatally involved.

Under these circumstances it becomes our solemn duty to inquire whether there are not in any connection between the government and banks of issue evils of great magnitude, inherent in its very nature and against which no precautions can effectually guard.

Unforeseen in the organization of the government and forced on the treasury by early necessities, the practice of employing banks was in truth from the beginning more a measure of emergency than of sound policy. When we started into existence as a nation, in addition to the burdens of the new government we assumed all the large but honorable load of debt which was the price of our liberty; but we hesitated to weigh down the infant industry of the country by resorting to adequate taxation for the necessary revenue. The facilities of banks, in return for the privileges they acquired, were promptly offered, and perhaps too readily received by an embarrassed treasury. During the long continuance of a national debt and the intervening difficulties of a foreign war the connection was continued from motives of convenience; but these causes have long since passed away. We have no emergencies that make banks necessary to aid the wants of the treasury; we have no load of national debt to provide for, and we have on actual deposit a large surplus. No public interest, therefore, now requires the renewal of a connection that circumstances have dissolved. The complete organization of our government, the abundance of our resources, the general harmony which prevails between the different States and with foreign powers, all enable us now to select the system most consistent with the Constitution and most conducive to the public welfare. Should we, then, connect the treasury for a fourth time with the local banks, it can only be under a conviction that past failures have arisen from accidental, not inherent, defects.

A danger difficult, if not impossible, to be avoided in such an arrangement is made strikingly evident in the very event by which it has now been defeated. A sudden act of the banks intrusted with the funds of the people deprives the treasury without fault or agency of the government, of the ability to pay its creditors in the currency they have by law a right to demand. This circumstance no fluctuation of commerce could have produced if the public revenue had been collected in the legal currency and kept in that form by the officers of the treasury. The citizen whose money was in bank receives it back since the suspension at a sacrifice in its amount, while he who kept it in the

legal currency of the country and in his own possession pursues without loss the current of his business. The government, placed in the situation of the former, is involved in embarrassments it would not have suffered had it pursued the course of the latter. These embarrassments are, moreover, augmented by those salutary and just laws which forbid it to use a depreciated currency, and by so doing take from the government the ability which individuals have of accommodating their transactions to such a catastrophe.

A system which can in a time of profound peace, when there is a large revenue laid by, thus suddenly prevent the application and the use of the money of the people in the manner and for the objects they have directed cannot be wise; but who can think without painful reflection that under it the same unforeseen events might have befallen us in the midst of a war and taken from us at the moment when most wanted the use of those very means which were treasured up to promote the national welfare and guard our national rights? To such embarrassments and to such dangers will this government be always exposed while it takes the moneys raised for and necessary to the public service out of the hands of its own officers and converts them into a mere right of action against corporations intrusted with the possession of them. Nor can such results be effectually guarded against in such a system without investing the executive with a control over the banks themselves, whether State or national, that might with reason be objected to. Ours is probably the only government in the world that is liable in the management of its fiscal concerns to occurrences like these.

But this imminent risk is not the only danger attendant on the surrender of the public money to the custody and control of local corporations. Though the object is aid to the treasury, its effect may be to introduce into the operations of the government influences the most subtle, founded on interests the most selfish.

The use by the banks, for their own benefit, of the money deposited with them has received the sanction of the government from the commencement of this connection. The money received from the people, instead of being kept till it is needed for their use, is, in consequence of this authority, a fund on which discounts are made for the profit of those who happen to be owners of stock in the banks selected as depositories. The supposed and often exaggerated advantages of such a boom will always cause it to be sought for with avidity. I will not stop to consider on whom the patronage incident to it is to be conferred. Whether the selection and control be intrusted to Congress or to the executive, either will be subjected to appeals made in every form which the sagacity of interest can suggest. The banks under such a system are stimulated to make the most of their fortunate acquisition; the deposits are treated as an increase of capital; loans and circulation are rashly augmented, and when the public exigencies require a return it is attended with embarrassments not provided for nor foreseen. Thus banks that thought themselves most fortunate when the public funds were received find themselves most embarrassed when the season of payment suddenly arrives.

Unfortunately, too, the evils of the system are not limited to the banks. It stimulates a general rashness of enterprise and aggravates the fluctuations of commerce and the currency. This result was strikingly exhibited during the operations of the late deposit system, and especially in the purchases of public lands. The order which ultimately directed the payment of gold and silver in such purchases greatly checked, but could not altogether prevent, the evil. Specie was indeed more difficult to be procured than the notes which the banks could themselves create at pleasure; but still, being obtained from them as a loan and returned as a deposit, which they were again at liberty to use, it only passed round the circle with diminished speed. This operation could not have been performed had the funds of the government gone into the treasury to be regularly disbursed, and not into banks to be loaned out for their own profit while they were permitted to substitute for it a credit in account.

In expressing these sentiments I desire not to undervalue the benefits of a salutary credit to any branch of enterprise,

The credit bestowed on probity and industry is the just reward of merit and an honorable incentive to further acquisition. None oppose it who love their country and understand its welfare. But when it is unduly encouraged; when it is made to inflame the public mind with the temptations of sudden and unsubstantial wealth; when it turns industry into paths that lead sooner or later to disappointment and distress, it becomes liable to censure and needs correction. Far from helping probity and industry, the ruin to which it leads falls most severely on the great laboring classes, who are thrown suddenly out of employment, and by the failure of magnificent schemes never intended to enrich them are deprived in a moment of their only resource. Abuses of credit and excesses in speculation will happen in despite of the most salutary laws; no government, perhaps, can altogether prevent them, but surely every government can refrain from contributing the stimulus that calls them into life.

Since, therefore, experience has shown that to lend the public money to the local banks is hazardous to the operations of the government, at least of doubtful benefit to the institutions themselves, and productive of disastrous derangement in the business and currency of the country, is it the part of wisdom again to renew the connection?

It is true that such an agency is in many respects convenient to the treasury, but it is not indispensable. A limitation of the expenses of the government to its actual wants, and of the revenue to those expenses, with convenient means for its prompt application to the purposes for which it was raised, are the objects which we should seek to accomplish. The collection, safe-keeping, transfer, and disbursement of the public money can, it is believed, be well managed by officers of the government. Its collection, and to a great extent its disbursement also, have indeed been hitherto conducted solely by them, neither national nor State banks, when employed, being required to do more than keep it safely while in their custody, and transfer and pay it in such portions and at such times as the treasury shall direct.

Surely banks are not more able than the government to secure the money in their possession against accident, violence, or fraud. The assertion that they are so must assume that a vault in a bank is stronger than a vault in the treasury, and that directors, cashiers, and clerks not selected by the government nor under its control are more worthy of confidence than officers selected from the people and responsible to the government — officers bound by [illegible] oaths and bonds for a faithful performance of their duties, and constantly subject to the supervision of Congress.

The difficulties of transfer and the aid heretofore rendered by banks have been less than is usually supposed. The actual accounts show that by far the larger portion of payments is made within short or convenient distances from the places of collection; and the whole number of warrants issued at the treasury in the year 1834—a year the result of which will, it is believed, afford a safe test for the future—fell short of 5,000, or an average of less than one daily for each State; in the city of New York they did not average more than two a day, and at the city of Washington only four.

The difficulties heretofore existing are, moreover, daily lessened by an increase in the cheapness and facility of communication, and it may be asserted with confidence that the necessary transfer, as well as the safe-keeping and disbursements of the public moneys, can be with safety and convenience accomplished through the agencies of treasury officers. This opinion has been in some degree confirmed by actual experience since the discontinuance of the banks as fiscal agents in May last —a period which from the embarrassments in commercial intercourse presented obstacles as great as any that may be hereafter apprehended.

The manner of keeping the public money since that period is fully stated in the report of the Secretary of the Treasury. That officer also suggests the propriety of assigning by law certain additional duties to existing establishments and officers which, with the modifications and safeguards referred to by him, will, he thinks, enable the department to continue to perform this branch of the public service without any material addition either to their number or to the present expense.

The extent of the business to be transacted has already been stated; and in respect to the amount of money with which the officers employed would be intrusted at any one time, it appears that, assuming a balance of $5,000,000 to be at all times kept in the treasury, and the whole of it left in the hands of the collectors and receivers, the proportion of each would not exceed an average of $30,000; but that, deducting $1,000,000 for the use of the mint and assuming the remaining $4,000,000 to be in the hands of one-half of the present number of officers—a supposition deemed more likely to correspond with the fact—the sum in the hands of each would still be less than the amount of most of the bonds now taken from the receivers of public money. Every apprehension, however, on the subject, either in respect to the safety of the money or the faithful discharge of these fiscal transactions, may, it appears to me, be effectually removed by adding to the present means of the treasury the establishment by law at a few important points of offices for the deposit and disbursement of such portions of the public revenue as cannot with obvious safety and convenience be left in the possession of the collecting officers until paid over by them to the public creditors. Neither the amounts retained in their hands nor those deposited in the offices would in an ordinary condition of the revenue be larger in most cases than those often under the control of disbursing officers of the army and navy, and might be made entirely safe by requiring such securities and exercising such controlling supervision as Congress may by law prescribe. The principal officers whose appointments would become necessary under this plan, taking the largest number suggested by the Secretary of the Treasury, would not exceed ten, nor the additional expenses, at the same estimate, $60,000 a year.

There can be no doubt of the obligations of those who are intrusted with the affairs of government to conduct them with as little cost to the nation as is consistent with the public interest; and it is for Congress, and ultimately for the people, to decide whether the benefits to be derived from keeping our fiscal concerns apart and severing the connection which has hitherto existed between the government and banks offer sufficient advantages to justify the necessary expenses. If the object to be accomplished is deemed important to the future welfare of the country, I cannot allow myself to believe that the addition to the public expenditure of comparatively so small an amount as will be necessary to effect it will be objected to by the people.

It will be seen by the report of the Postmaster-General herewith communicated that the fiscal affairs of that department have been successfully conducted since May last upon the principle of dealing only in the legal currency of the United States, and that it needs no legislation to maintain its credit and facilitate the management of its concerns, the existing laws being, in the opinion of that officer, ample for those objects.

Difficulties will doubtless be encountered for a season and increased services required from the public functionaries; such are usually incident to the commencement of every system, but they will be greatly lessened in the progress of its operations.

The power and influence supposed to be connected with the custody and disbursement of the public money are topics on which the public mind is naturally, and with great propriety, peculiarly sensitive. Much has been said on them in reference to the proposed separation of the government from the banking institutions; and surely no one can object to any appeals or animadversions on the subject which are consistent with facts and evince a proper respect for the intelligence of the people. If a chief magistrate may be allowed to speak for himself on such a point, I can truly say that to me nothing would be more acceptable than the withdrawal from the executive, to the greatest practicable extent, of all concerns in the custody and disbursement of the public revenue; not that I would shrink from any responsibility cast upon me by the duties of my office, but because it is my firm belief that its capacity for usefulness is in no degree promoted by the possession of any patronage not actually necessary to the performance of those duties. But under our present form of government the intervention of the executive officers in the custody and disbursement of the public

money seems to be unavoidable; and before it can be admitted that the influence and power of the executive would be increased by dispensing with the agency of banks the nature of that intervention in such an agency must be carefully regarded, and a comparison must be instituted between its extent in the two cases.

The revenue can only be collected by officers appointed by the President with the advice and consent of the Senate. The public moneys in the first instance must therefore in all cases pass through hands selected by the executive. Other officers appointed in the same way, or, as in some cases, by the President alone, must also be intrusted with them when drawn for the purpose of disbursement. It is thus seen that even when banks are employed the public funds must twice pass through the hands of executive officers. Besides this, the head of the Treasury Department, who also holds office at the pleasure of the President, and some other officers of the same department, must necessarily be invested with more or less power in the selection, continuance, and supervision of the banks that may be employed. The question is then narrowed to the single point whether in the intermediate stage between the collection and disbursement of the public money the agency of banks is necessary to avoid a dangerous extension of the patronage and influence of the executive. But is it clear that the connection of the executive with powerful moneyed institutions, capable of ministering to the interests of men in points where they are most accessible to corruption, is less liable to abuse than his constitutional agency in the appointment and control of the few public officers required by the proposed plan? Will the public money when in their hands be necessarily exposed to any improper interference on the part of the executive? May it not be hoped that a prudent fear of public jealousy and disapprobation in a matter so peculiarly exposed to them will deter him from any such interference, even if higher motives be found inoperative? May not Congress so regulate by law the duty of those officers and subject it to such supervision and publicity as to prevent the possibility of any serious abuse on the part of the executive? And is there equal room for such supervision and publicity in a connection with banks, acting under the shield of corporate immunities and conducted by persons irresponsible to the government and the people? It is believed that a considerate and candid investigation of these questions will result in the conviction that the proposed plan is far less liable to objection on the score of executive patronage and control than any bank agency that has been or can be devised.

With these views I leave to Congress the measures necessary to regulate in the present emergency the safe-keeping and transfer of the public moneys. In the performance of constitutional duty I have stated to them without reserve the result of my own reflections. The subject is of great importance, and one on which we can scarcely expect to be as united in sentiment as we are in interest. It deserves a full and free discussion, and cannot fail to be benefited by a dispassionate comparison of opinions. Well aware myself of the duty of reciprocal concession among the co-ordinate branches of the government, I can promise a reasonable spirit of co-operation, so far as it can be indulged in without the surrender of constitutional objections which I believe to be well founded. Any system that may be adopted should be subjected to the fullest legal provision, so as to leave nothing to the executive but what is necessary to the discharge of the duties imposed on him; and whatever plan may be ultimately established, my own part shall be so discharged as to give to it a fair trial and the best prospect of success.

The character of the funds to be received and disbursed in the transactions of the government likewise demands your most careful consideration.

There can be no doubt that those who framed and adopted the Constitution, having in immediate view the depreciated paper of the Confederacy—of which $500 in paper were at times only equal to $1 in coin—intended to prevent the recurrence of similar evils, so far at least as related to the transactions of the new government. They gave to Congress express powers to coin money and to regulate the value thereof and of foreign coin; they refused to give it power to establish cor-

porations—the agents then as now chiefly employed to create a paper currency; they prohibited the States from making anything but gold and silver a legal tender in payment of debts; and the first Congress directed by positive law that the revenue should be received in nothing but gold and silver.

Public exigency at the outset of the government, without direct legislative authority, led to the use of banks as fiscal aids to the treasury. It admitted deviation from the law; at the same period and under the same exigency, the Secretary of the Treasury received their notes in payment of duties. The sole ground on which the practice thus commenced was then or has since been justified is the certain, immediate, and convenient exchange of such notes for specie. The government did, indeed, receive the inconvertible notes of State banks during the difficulties of war, and the community submitted without a murmur to the unequal taxation and multiplied evils of which such a course was productive. With the war this indulgence ceased, and the banks were obliged again to redeem their notes in gold and silver. The treasury, in accordance with previous practice, continued to dispense with the currency required by the act of 1789, and took the notes of banks in full confidence of their being paid in specie on demand; and Congress, to guard against the slightest violation of this principle, have declared by law that if notes are paid in the transactions of the government it must be under such circumstances as to enable the holder to convert them into specie without depreciation or delay.

Of my own duties under the existing laws, when the banks suspended specie payments, I could not doubt. Directions were immediately given to prevent the reception into the treasury of anything but gold and silver, or its equivalent, and every practicable arrangement was made to preserve the public faith by similar or equivalent payments to the public creditors. The revenue from lands had been for some time substantially so collected under the order issued by directions of my predecessor. The effects of that order had been so salutary and its forecast in regard to the increasing insecurity of bank-paper had become so apparent that even before the catastrophe I had resolved not to interfere with its operation. Congress is now to decide whether the revenue shall continue to be so collected or not.

The receipt into the treasury of bank-notes not redeemed in specie on demand will not, I presume, be sanctioned. It would destroy without the excuse of war or public distress that equality of impost and identity of commercial regulations which lie at the foundation of our confederacy, and would offer to each State a direct temptation to increase its foreign trade by depreciating the currency received for duties in its ports. Such a proceeding would also in a great degree frustrate the policy so highly cherished of infusing into our circulation a larger proportion of the precious metals—a policy the wisdom of which none can doubt, though there may be different opinions as to the extent to which it should be carried. Its results have been already too auspicious and its success is too closely interwoven with the future prosperity of the country to permit us for a moment to contemplate its abandonment. We have seen under its influence our specie augmented beyond $80,000,000, our coinage increased so as to make that of gold amount between August, 1834, and December, 1836, to $10,000,000, exceeding the whole coinage at the mint during the thirty-one previous years.

The prospect of further improvement continued without abatement until the moment of the suspension of specie payments. This policy has now, indeed, been suddenly checked, but is still far from being overthrown. Amid all conflicting theories, one position is undeniable—the precious metals will invariably disappear when there ceases to be a necessity for their use as a circulating medium. It was in strict accordance with this truth that, while in the month of May last they were everywhere seen and were current for all ordinary purposes, they disappeared from circulation the moment the payment of specie was refused by the banks and the community tacitly agreed to dispense with its employment. Their place was supplied by a currency exclusively of paper, and in many cases of the worst description. Already are the bank-notes now in circula-

tion greatly depreciated, and they fluctuate in value between one place and another, thus diminishing and making uncertain the worth of property and the price of labor, and failing to subserve, except at a heavy loss, the purposes of business. With each succeeding day the metallic currency decreases; by some it is hoarded in the natural fear that once parted with it cannot be replaced, while by others it is diverted from its more legitimate uses for the sake of gain. Should Congress sanction this condition of things by making irredeemable paper money receivable in payment of public dues, a temporary check to a wise and salutary policy will in all probability be converted into its absolute destruction.

It is true that bank-notes actually convertible into specie may be received in payment of the revenue without being liable to all these objections, and that such a course may to some extent promote individual convenience—an object always to be considered where it does not conflict with the principles of our government or the general welfare of the country. If such notes only were received, and always under circumstances allowing their early presentation for payment, and if at short and fixed periods they were converted into specie to be kept by the officers of the treasury, some of the most serious obstacles to their reception would perhaps be removed. To retain the notes in the treasury would be to renew under another form the loans of public money to the banks, and the evils consequent thereon.

It is, however, a mistaken impression that any large amount of specie is required for public payments. Of the $70,000,000 or $80,000,000 now estimated to be in the country, $10,000,000 would be abundantly sufficient for that purpose provided an accumulation of a large amount of revenue beyond the necessary wants of the government be hereafter prevented. If to these considerations be added the facilities which will arise from enabling the treasury to satisfy the public creditors, by its drafts and notes received in payment of the public dues, it may be safely assumed that no motive of convenience to the citizen requires the reception of bank-paper.

To say that the refusal of paper money by the government introduces an unjust discrimination between the currency received by it and that used by individuals in their ordinary affairs is, in my judgment, to view it in a very erroneous light. The Constitution prohibits the States from making anything but gold and silver a tender in the payment of debts, and thus secures to every citizen a right to demand payment in the legal currency. To provide by law that the government will only receive its dues in gold and silver is not to confer on it any peculiar privilege, but merely to place it on an equality with the citizen by reserving to it a right secured to him by the Constitution. It is doubtless for this reason that the principle has been sanctioned by successive laws from the time of the first Congress under the Constitution down to the last. Such precedents, never objected to, and proceeding from such sources, afford a decisive answer to the imputation of inequality or injustice.

But, in fact, the measure is one of restriction, not of favor. To forbid the public agent to receive in payment any other than a certain kind of money is to refuse him a discretion possessed by every citizen. It may be left to those who have the management of their own transactions to make their own terms, but no such discretion should be given to him who acts merely as an agent of the people—who is to collect what the law requires and to pay the appropriations it makes. When bank-notes are redeemed on demand, there is then no discrimination in reality, for the individual who receives them may at his option substitute the specie for them; he takes them from convenience or choice. When they are not so redeemed, it will scarcely be contended that their receipt and payment by a public officer should be permitted, though none deny that right to an individual. If it were, the effect would be most injurious to the public, since their officer could make none of those arrangements to meet or guard against the depreciation which an individual is at liberty to do. Nor can inconvenience to the community be alleged as an objection to such a regulation. Its object and motive are their convenience and welfare.

If at a moment of simultaneous and un-

expected suspension by the banks it adds something to the many embarrassments of that proceeding, yet these are far overbalanced by its direct tendency to produce a wider circulation of gold and silver, to increase the safety of bank-paper, to improve the general currency, and thus to prevent altogether such occurrences and the other and far greater evils that attend them.

It may, indeed, be questioned whether it is not for the interest of the banks themselves that the government should not receive their paper. They would be conducted with more caution and on sounder principles. By using specie only in its transactions the government would create a demand for it, which would to a great extent prevent its exportation, and by keeping it in circulation maintain a broader and safer basis for the paper currency. That the banks would thus be rendered more sound and the community more safe cannot admit of a doubt.

The foregoing views, it seems to me, do but fairly carry out the provisions of the federal Constitution in relation to the currency, as far as relates to the public revenue. At the time that instrument was framed there were but three or four banks in the United States, and had the extension of the banking system and the evils growing out of it been foreseen they would probably have been specially guarded against. The same policy which led to the prohibition of bills of credit by the States would doubtless in that event have also interdicted their issue as a currency in any other form. The Constitution, however, contains no such prohibition; and since the States have exercised for nearly half a century the power to regulate the business of banking, it is not to be expected that it will be abandoned. The whole matter is now under discussion before the proper tribunal—the people of the States. Never before has the public mind been so thoroughly awakened to a proper sense of its importance; never has the subject in all its bearings been submitted to so searching an inquiry. It would be distrusting the intelligence and virtue of the people to doubt the speedy and efficient adoption of such measures of reform as the public good demands. All that can rightfully be done by the federal government to promote the accomplishment of that important object will without doubt be performed.

In the mean time it is our duty to provide all the remedies against a depreciated paper currency which the Constitution enables us to afford. The Treasury Department on several former occasions has suggested the propriety and importance of a uniform law concerning bankruptcies of corporations and other bankers. Through the instrumentality of such a law a salutary check may doubtless be imposed on the issues of paper money, and an effectual remedy given to the citizens in a way at once equal in all parts of the Union and fully authorized by the Constitution.

The indulgence granted by executive authority in the payment of bonds for duties has been already mentioned. Seeing that the immediate enforcement of these obligations would subject a large and highly respectable portion of our citizens to great sacrifices, and believing that a temporary postponement could be made without detriment to other interests and with increased certainty of ultimate payment, I did not hesitate to comply with the request that was made of me. The terms allowed are to the full extent as liberal as any that are to be found in the practice of the executive department. It remains for Congress to decide whether a further postponement may not with propriety be allowed, and if so, their legislation upon the subject is respectfully invited.

The report of the Secretary of the Treasury will exhibit the condition of these debts, the extent and effect of the present indulgence, the probable result of its further extension on the state of the treasury, and every other fact necessary to a full consideration of the subject. Similar information is communicated in regard to such depositories of the public moneys as are indebted to the government, in order that Congress may also adopt the proper measures in regard to them.

The receipts and expenditures for the first half of the year and an estimate of those for the residue will be laid before you by the Secretary of the Treasury. In his report of December last it was estimated that the current receipts would fall short of the expenditures by about

$3,000,000. It will be seen that the difference will be much greater. This is to be attributed not only to the occurrence of greater pecuniary embarrassments in the business of the country than those which were then predicted, and consequently a greater diminution in the revenue, but also to the fact that the appropriations exceeded by nearly $6,000,000 the amount which was asked for in the estimates then submitted. The sum necessary for the service of the year, beyond the probable receipts and the amount which it was intended should be reserved in the treasury at the commencement of the year, will be about $6,000,000. If the whole of the reserved balance be not at once applied to the current expenditures, but $4,000,000 be still kept in the treasury, as seems most expedient for the uses of the mint and to meet contingencies, the sum needed will be $10,000,000.

In making this estimate the receipts are calculated on the supposition of some further extension of the indulgence granted in the payment of bonds for duties, which will affect the amount of the revenue for the present year to the extent of $2,500,000.

It is not proposed to procure the required amount by loans or increased taxation. There are now in the treasury $9,367,214, directed by the act of June 23, 1836, to be deposited with the States in October next. This sum, if so deposited, will be subject under the law to be recalled if needed to defray existing appropriations; and as it is now evident that the whole, or the principal part, of it will be wanted for that purpose, it appears most proper that the deposit should be withheld. Until the amount can be collected from the banks, treasury notes may be temporarily issued, to be gradually redeemed as it is received.

I am aware that this course may be productive of inconvenience to many of the States. Relying upon the acts of Congress which held out to them the strong probability, if not the certainty, of receiving this instalment, they have in some instances adopted measures with which its intention may seriously interfere. That such a condition of things should have occurred is much to be regretted. It is not the least among the unfortunate results of the disasters of the times; and it is for Congress to devise a fit remedy, if there be one. The money being indispensable to the wants of the treasury, it is difficult to conceive upon what principle of justice or expediency its application to that object can be avoided. To recall any portion of the sums already deposited with the States would be more inconvenient and less efficient. To burden the country with increased taxation when there is in fact a large surplus revenue would be unjust and unwise; to raise moneys by loans under such circumstances, and thus to commence a new national debt, would scarcely be sanctioned by the American people.

The plan proposed will be adequate to all our fiscal operations during the remainder of the year. Should it be adopted, the treasury, aided by the ample resources of the country, will be able to discharge punctually every pecuniary obligation. For the future all that is needed will be that caution and forbearance in appropriations which the diminution of the revenue requires and which the complete accomplishment or great forwardness of many extensive national undertakings renders equally consistent with prudence and patriotic liberality.

The preceding suggestions and recommendations are submitted in the belief that their adoption by Congress will enable the executive department to conduct our fiscal concerns with success so far as their management has been committed to it. While the objects and the means proposed to attain them are within its constitutional powers and appropriate duties, they will at the same time, it is hoped, by their necessary operation, afford essential aid in the transaction of individual concerns, and thus yield relief to the people at large in a form adapted to the nature of our government. Those who look to the action of this government for specific aid to the citizen to relieve embarrassments arising from losses by revulsions in commerce and credit lose sight of the ends for which it was created and the powers with which it is clothed. It was established to give security to us all in our lawful and honorable pursuits, under the lasting safeguard of republican institutions. It was not intended to confer special favors on individuals or on any

classes of them, to create systems of agriculture, manufactures, or trade, or to engage in them either separately or in connection with individual citizens or organized associations. If its operations were to be directed for the benefit of any one class, equivalent favors must in justice be extended to the rest, and the attempt to bestow such favors with an equal hand, or even to select those who should most deserve them, would never be successful.

All communities are apt to look to government for too much. Even in our own country, where its powers and duties are so strictly limited, we are prone to do so, especially at periods of sudden embarrassment and distress. But this ought not to be. The framers of our excellent Constitution and the people who approved it with calm and sagacious deliberation acted at the time on a sounder principle. They wisely judged that the less government interferes with private pursuits the better for the general prosperity. It is not its legitimate object to make men rich or to repair by direct grants of money or legislation in favor of particular pursuits losses not incurred in the public service. This would be substantially to use the property of some for the benefit of others. But its real duty—that duty the performance of which makes a good government the most precious of human blessings—is to enact and enforce a system of general laws commensurate with, but not exceeding, the objects of its establishment, and to leave every citizen and every interest to reap under its benign protection the rewards of virtue, industry, and prudence.

I cannot doubt that on this as on all similar occasions the federal government will find its agency most conducive to the security and happiness of the people when limited to the exercise of its conceded powers. In never assuming, even for a well-meant object, such powers as were not designed to be conferred upon it, we shall in reality do most for the general welfare. To avoid every unnecessary interference with the pursuits of the citizen will result in more benefit than to adopt measures which could only assist limited interests, and are eagerly, but perhaps naturally, sought for under the pressure of temporary circumstances. If, therefore, I refrain from suggesting to Congress any specific plan for regulating the exchanges of the country, relieving mercantile embarrassments, or interfering with the ordinary operations of foreign or domestic commerce, it is from a conviction that such measures are not within the constitutional province of the general government, and that their adoption would not promote the real and permanent welfare of those they might be designed to aid.

The difficulties and distresses of the times, though unquestionably great, are limited in their extent, and cannot be regarded as affecting the permanent prosperity of the nation. Arising in a great degree from the transactions of foreign and domestic commerce, it is upon them that they have chiefly fallen. The great agricultural interest has in many parts of the country suffered comparatively little, and, as if Providence intended to display the munificence of its goodness at the moment of our greatest need, and in direct contrast to the evils occasioned by the waywardness of man, we have been blessed throughout our extended territory with a season of general health and of uncommon fruitfulness. The proceeds of our great staples will soon furnish the means of liquidating debts at home and abroad, and contribute equally to the revival of commercial activity and the restoration of commercial credit. The banks, established avowedly for its support, deriving their profits from it, and resting under obligations to it which cannot be overlooked, will feel at once the necessity and justice of uniting their energies with those of the mercantile interest.

The suspension of specie payments at such a time and under such circumstances as we have lately witnessed could not be other than a temporary measure, and we can scarcely err in believing that the period must soon arrive when all that are solvent will redeem their issues in gold and silver. Dealings abroad naturally depend on resources and prosperity at home. If the debt of our merchants has accumulated or their credit is impaired, these are fluctuations always incident to extensive or extravagant mercantile transactions. But the ultimate security of such obligations does not admit of question. They are guaranteed by the resources of

a country the fruits of whose industry afford abundant means of ample liquidation and by the evident interest of every merchant to sustain a credit hitherto high by promptly applying these means for its preservation.

I deeply regret that events have occurred which require me to ask your consideration on such serious topics. I could have wished that in making my first communication to the assembled representatives of my country I had nothing to dwell upon but the history of her unalloyed prosperity. Since it is otherwise, we can only feel more deeply the responsibility of the respective trusts that have been confided to us, and under the pressure of difficulties unite in invoking the guidance and aid of the Supreme Ruler of Nations and in laboring with zealous resolution to overcome the difficulties by which we are environed.

It is under such circumstances a high gratification to know by long experience that we act for a people to whom the truth, however unpromising, can always be spoken with safety; for the trial of whose patriotism no emergency is too severe, and who are sure never to desert a public functionary, honestly laboring for the public good. It seems just that they should receive without delay any aid in their embarrassments which your deliberations can afford. Coming directly from the midst of them, and knowing the course of events in every section of our country, from you may best be learned as well the extent and nature of these embarrassments as the most desirable measures of relief.

I am aware, however, that it is not proper to detain you at present longer than may be demanded by the special objects for which you are convened. To them, therefore, I have confined my communication: and believing it will not be your own wish now to extend your deliberations beyond them, I reserve till the usual period of your annual meeting that general information on the state of the Union which the Constitution requires me to give.

Van Cleve, Horatio Phillips, military officer; born in Princeton, N. J., Nov. 23, 1809; graduated at West Point in 1831, but left the army in 1839. At the breaking-out of the Civil War he became colonel of the 2d Minnesota volunteers. He commanded a brigade in Crittenden's division in northern Mississippi and Alabama; took command of the division in the battle of Stone River, where he was wounded. From 1863 to 1865 he was in command at Murfreesboro. He was mustered out of the volunteer service as brevet major-general March 13, 1865; and was adjutant-general of the State of Minnesota in 1866–70 and 1876–82. He died in Minneapolis, Minn., April 24, 1891.

Van Corlaer, Arendt, commissioner of Rensselaerwick (Albany); came to America from Holland in 1630. He founded Schenectady and had great influence with the Mohawk Indians. He was accidentally drowned in Lake Champlain in 1667. For over a hundred years, beginning with Governor Andros, the Five Nations gave the name of "Corlaer" to the governors of New York.

Van Cortlandt, Oliver Stevense, military officer; born in Wijk, Holland, in 1600; received a fair education; arrived in New Netherland as an officer of the West India Company March 28, 1638; was made customs officer in 1639; had charge of the public stores of the company in 1643–48; then became a merchant and brewer. He was made colonel of the burgher guard in 1649; was appointed mayor (burgomaster) of New Amsterdam in 1654; and held that office almost without interruption till 1664, when New Amsterdam was surrendered to the British. He was then appointed by Governor Stuyvesant one of the commissioners to arrange a settlement with the British. In 1663 he took a prominent part in settling the Connecticut boundary dispute, and in 1664 in settling the claims of Capt. John Scott to Long Island, and also held trusts under the English governors Nicholls, Lovelace, and Dongan. He died in New York, April 4, 1684.

His son, Jacob, born in New York City, July 7, 1658, was a member of the first three William and Mary assemblies, was again a member in 1702–9 and 1710–15; and was mayor of his native city in 1719. He was a large land-holder and one of the most prominent men of his time. His estate of 800 acres at Yonkers

was bought by New York City from his descendants, to whom it had continuously passed, and was thrown into the new Van Cortlandt Park. He died in New York City in 1739.

Another son, STEPHEN, born in New York City, May 4, 1643, was educated by a Dutch clergyman; became an ensign in the King's County Regiment in 1668, and later was colonel. In 1677 he was made the first native American mayor of New York City, and held that office al-

VAN CORTLANDT MANOR-HOUSE.

most consecutively till his death. He was a member of the governor's council for many years, and became a justice of the Provincial Supreme Court in 1693. His estate was erected into the manor and lordship of Cortlandt, June 17, 1697. In the manor, which stood on the shore of Croton Bay, Washington, Franklin, Rochambeau, Lafayette, and other eminent men were entertained during the Revolutionary War. He died in New York City, Nov. 25, 1700.

Van Cortlandt, PHILIP, military officer; born in Cortlandt Manor, N. Y., Sept. 1, 1749; son of Pierre Van Cortlandt; became a land surveyor at the age of nineteen years, but when the Revolutionary War began he entered the military service as lieutenant-colonel. His Tory relatives had tried to dissuade him from this step, and Governor Tryon sent him a commission as colonel of militia, which he destroyed. In 1776 he was made colonel of the 2d New York Regiment, with which he fought at Bemis's Heights and Saratoga. In the winter of 1778 he was sent to protect the New York frontiers against the Indians under Brant. He was a member of the court that tried General Arnold for improper conduct at Philadelphia, and was in favor of cashiering him. "Had all the court," wrote Van Cortlandt in his diary, "known Arnold's former conduct as well as myself, he would have been dismissed the service." In 1780 he commanded a regiment under Lafayette; was with him in Virginia; and for his gallant conduct at Yorktown was promoted to brigadier-general. At the close of the war he retired to the Manor-house. From 1788 to 1790 he was a member of the New York legislature, and also of the State convention that adopted the national Constitution. He was United States Senator from 1791 to 1794, and member of Congress from 1793 to 1809. Van Cortlandt's Sugar House, New York City, was used by the British as a prison during the Revolution. He died in Cortlandt Manor, N. Y., Nov. 5, 1831.

Van Cortlandt, PIERRE, patriot; born in Cortlandt Manor, N. Y., Jan. 10, 1721; son of Philip Van Cortlandt, third son of Stephanus; was a member of the first Provincial Congress of New York; chairman of the committee of public safety;

and was exceedingly active in the patriot cause. Throughout the Revolution he appears to have been the principal administrator of the government of New York; and so obnoxious was he to the British government that it set a bounty on his head. He was the first lieutenant-governor of New York, and held that office by re-election for eighteen years. He had been one of the committee that framed the constitution of the State of New York in 1777. He died in Cortlandt Manor, N. Y., May 1, 1814.

Van Dam, RIP, colonial governor; born in Albany, N. Y., about 1662; engaged in trade with the West Indies. In order to oppose Lord Bellomont's commercial policy, he entered politics, and in 1669 was elected to the Assembly, where he led the opposition party; was appointed a member of the council and remained there for nearly thirty years; and was acting governor of New York from July 1, 1731, till Aug. 1, 1732. Shortly after the arrival of Gov. William Cosby a bitter dispute arose between him and Van Dam over an order which the governor exhibited for an equal division of perquisites and emoluments. Each sued the other, but no settlement was ever reached. Van Dam published *Heads of Complaint Against Governor Cosby.* He died in New York City some time after 1736.

Van Depoele, CHARLES J., electrician; born in Lichtervelde, Belgium, April 27, 1846; came to the United States in 1871. In 1880 he moved to Chicago and formed an electric-lighting company. And in 1885 he made the first exhibition of the overhead-trolley system which subsequently was adopted on electrical street railroads generally. In 1888 he sold his rights and patents to the Thomson-Houston Company of Lynn, Mass., and became electrician of that company. He also invented the electric percussion drill used in mining, and made numerous electrical improvements, but will be best remembered as the "father" of the overhead-trolley system. He died in Lynn, Mass., March 12, 1892.

Van Der Veer, ABRAHAM, legislator; born in Flatbush, New York, Jan. 27, 1781; appointed postmaster of Flatbush, 1814; clerk of the Kings county courts, 1816; elected member of Congress for the district including Kings, Richmond, and Rockland counties in 1836. He died in Brooklyn, July 21, 1839.

Van Devanter, WILLIS, jurist; born in Marion, Ind., April 17, 1859; was graduated at Indiana Asbury (now De Pauw) University in 1878 and at the Cincinnati Law School in 1881; removed to Cheynne, Wyo., in 1884; appointed commissioner to revise the *Statutes* of Wyoming in 1886; member of Territorial legislature and chairman of its judiciary committee in 1888; chief-justice Wyoming Supreme Court in 1889–90; Assistant United States Attorney-General in 1897–1903; judge of the Eighth United States Judicial Circuit in 1903–10; Associate Justice of the United States Supreme Court, 1910. He was also professor of equity, pleading, and practice in 1898–1903, and of equity jurisdiction in 1902–03 in Columbian (now George Washington) University. In 1911 he was appointed a member of the special committee of the United States Supreme Court to revise the rules of the federal courts of equity.

Van Dorn, EARL, military officer; born near Port Gibson, Miss., Sept. 17, 1820; graduated at West Point in 1842, and served in the war against Mexico, receiving brevets for gallantry at Cerro Gordo, Contreras, Churubusco, and at the capture of the city of Mexico, where he was wounded. After serving in several Indian campaigns, he resigned, Jan. 31, 1861, and was commissioned a colonel in the Confederate army. He was ordered to Texas in April, 1861, to secure for the Confederates the remnant of the forces betrayed by Twiggs (see TWIGGS, DAVID EMANUEL). At that time seven companies, under Major Sibley, were at Matagorda Bay, preparing to embark for the North on the *Star of the West*, under convoy of the gunboat *Mohawk*. These vessels did not make their appearance, and Sibley embarked on two lighters for Tampico, Mexico. Lack of coal and provisions compelled him to turn back. Four vessels, with 1,500 Texans under Van Dorn, came into the bay, and captured Sibley and his whole command. At about the same time a party of volunteers from Galveston captured the *Star of the West* (April 17), with all her stores. On the

23d Colonel Waite and all his officers, on duty at San Antonio, were made prisoners; so also were seven companies under Colonel Reese, who were making their way towards the coast. These were all the National troops remaining in Texas, which Twiggs had surrendered. They were kept prisoners a while, and, after being compelled to give their parole not to bear arms against the Confederates, embarked for New York. Promoted major-general, Van Dorn took command of the trans-Mississippi district in January, 1862, and was defeated at Pea Ridge and Corints, and superseded by Pemberton. Defeated at Franklin, he was shot dead by Dr. Peters in Spring Hill, Tenn., May 8, 1863.

Van Dyke, HENRY, educator; born in Germantown, Pa., Nov. 10, 1852; graduated at Brooklyn Polytechnic Institute in 1869, Princeton College in 1873, Princeton Theological Seminary in 1877, and Berlin University in 1878. He was pastor of the United Congregational Church, Newport, R. I., in 1878, and of the Brick Presbyterian Church, New York, in 1883–1900; and professor of English literature in Princeton University from 1900. In June, 1913, the university granted him a leave of absence that he might accept the appointment of minister to the Netherlands and Luxembourg, where he became active in the European war relief work, 1914–15.

Van Dyke, THEODORE STRONG, author; born in New Brunswick, N. J., July 19, 1842; graduated at Princeton College in 1863; was admitted to the bar in 1866, and practised in Minnesota in 1869–76; then settled in Southern California and became an irrigation engineer. His publications include *The Rifle, Rod, and Gun in California; The Still Hunter;* and *Southern California the Italy of America.*

Van Horne, THOMAS B., military officer; conspicuous in the War of 1812–15. In August, 1812, Governor Meigs sent Captain Brush with men, cattle, provisions, and a mail for Hull's army. At the Raisin River, Brush sent word to Hull that he had information that a body of Indians under Tecumseh was lying in wait for him near Brownstown, at the mouth of the Huron River, 25 miles below Detroit, and he asked the general to send down a detachment of soldiers as an escort. Hull ordered Major Van Horne, of Colonel Findlay's regiment, with 200 men, to join Brush, and escort him and his treasures to headquarters. The major crossed the Detroit from Hull's forces in Canada, Aug. 4. On the morning of the 5th, while the detachment was moving cautiously, Van Horne was told by a Frenchman that several hundred Indians lay in ambush near Brownstown. Accustomed to alarmists, he did not believe the story, and pushed forward his men in two columns, when they were fired upon from both sides by Indians concealed in the thickets and woods. The attack was sudden, sharp, and deadly, and the troops were thrown into confusion. Apprehensive that he might be surrounded, Van Horne ordered a retreat. The Indians pursued, and a running fight was kept up for some distance, the Americans frequently turning upon the savage foe and giving them deadly volleys. The mail carried by the Americans was lost, and fell into the hands of the British at Fort Malden, by which most valuable information concerning the army under Hull was revealed, for officers and soldiers had written freely to their friends at home. The Americans lost seventeen killed and several wounded, who were left behind.

Van Horne, SIR WILLIAM CORNELIUS, Canadian railroad official; born in Joliet, Ill., Feb. 3, 1843; began his career as an office-boy in a railroad station; was rapidly promoted till he was made general superintendent of the St. Louis, Kansas City, and Northern Railway in 1872. Later he successively held the same post on the Southern Minnesota, the Chicago and Alton, and the Chicago, Milwaukee, and St. Paul railroads. In 1880 he was made general manager, and in 1888, president of the Canadian Pacific railway. He was created an honorary K. C. M. G. by Queen Victoria in May, 1894, in recognition of his eminent public services.

Van Ness, CORNELIUS PETER, diplomatist; born in Kinderhook, N. Y., Jan. 26, 1782; settled in Burlington, Vt., where he practised law till 1809, when he was appointed United States attorney. In 1817–21 he was a commissioner to arrange boundary lines of the United States under the treaty of Ghent; in 1821–23

was chief-justice of Vermont; in 1823–29 was governor of that State; and in 1829–37 was minister to Spain. He was the author of *Letter to the Public on Political Parties, Caucuses, and Conventions.* He died in Philadelphia, Pa., Dec. 15, 1852.

Van Ness, WILLIAM PETER, jurist; born in Ghent, N. Y., in 1778; graduated at Columbia College; admitted to the bar and removed to New York City, where he became an intimate friend of Aaron Burr; carried Burr's challenge to Hamilton and acted as one of the former's seconds in the duel; was United States judge of the southern district of New York in 1812–26. He was the author of *Examination of Charges Against Aaron Burr; Laws of New York, with Notes* (with John Woodworth); *Reports of Two Cases in the Prize Court for New York District;* and *Concise Narrative of General Jackson's First Invasion of Florida.* He died in New York City, Sept. 6, 1826.

Van Rensselaer, HENRY KILLIAN, military officer; born near Albany, N. Y., in 1744; commanded a regiment in the Revolutionary War, and was wounded in the battle of Saratoga. He was afterwards a general of militia. In July, 1777, at about the time of the retreat of the American army from Ticonderoga before Burgoyne, he was attacked by a large British force near Fort Anne. He made stout resistance; but, hearing of the evacuation of Ticonderoga, he fell back towards Fort Edward. In that encounter he received a bullet in his thigh, which was not extracted until after his death, in Greenbush, N. Y., Sept. 9, 1816.

Above the north line of Massachusetts, the country (now Vermont) was within the claimed jurisdiction of New York State and of the New Hampshire Grants. The animosities between the State government of New York and the people of the Grants, which the active Revolutionary operations in that quarter had, for a time, quieted, now that those operations had ceased, were renewed in all their former vigor. So warm became the controversy, that, on Dec. 1, 1781, an insurrection broke out in the regiments of Colonels John and Henry K. Van Rensselaer. The regiment of Colonel Peter Yates also became disaffected, and, indeed, a large portion of the militia between the Batten Kill and the Hoosick seemed disposed to take sides with the lawless people of the Grants, who disregarded the urgent demands of patriotism at that juncture. These disturbances arose in "Scaghticoke, St. Coych, and parts adjacent." The insurgent regiments belonged to General Gansevoort's brigade. He heard of the defection on the 5th, and immediately directed Colonels Yates, Van Vechten, and Henry K. Van Rensselaer, whose regiments were the least tainted, to collect such troops as they could, and march to St. Coych, to quell the insurrection. An express was sent to Governor Clinton, at Poughkeepsie, who readily perceived that the movement had its origin among the people of the Grants. With his usual promptness, he ordered the brigade of General Robert Van Rensselaer to the assistance of Gansevoort, and gave the latter all necessary latitude in raising troops for the exigency. Gansevoort repaired to Saratoga, and solicited troops and a field-piece from General Stark, who was stationed there. The latter declined compliance, on the plea that his troops were too poorly clad to leave their quarters at that season, and also that he thought it improper to interfere without an order from General Heath, his superior. Governor Chittenden, of the Grants, had just addressed a letter to Stark, requesting him not to interfere; and, as his sympathies were with the Vermonters, that was doubtless the true cause of his withholding aid from Gansevoort. The latter, with what volunteers he could raise, pushed on to St. Coych, where he discovered a motley force of about five hundred men advancing to sustain the insurgent militia. Having only eighty men with him, Gansevoort retired about five miles, and attempted to open a correspondence with the leaders of the rebellion. He was unsuccessful, and the rebels remained undisturbed. Early in January following, Washington wrote a calm and powerful letter to Governor Chittenden, which had great effect in quelling disturbances there, and no serious consequences grew out of the movement.

Van Rensselaer, KILLIAN, colonist; born in Amsterdam, Holland, in 1595; received a good education; acquired

wealth as a diamond and pearl merchant in Amsterdam; and was prominent in the establishment of the West India Company. Later, through an agent, he bought a large tract of land from the Indians in New Netherland, on the Hudson River, comprising the present counties of Albany, Rensselaer, and Columbia. The tract, which was named Rensselaerswick, was colonized with immigrants from Holland. Van Rensselaer never visited the colony, but directed its affairs through a sheriff. To protect the colonists from the Indians, he ordered that they should all live near each other, except the tobacco-planters and farmers. After his death, in 1644, the West India Company became jealous of the success of the colony, and Governor Stuyvesant, with a military escort, visited it in 1648, and gave orders that no buildings should be constructed within a certain distance of Fort Orange. Subsequently he endeavored to restrict the privileges of Van Rensselaer's sons.

His son, JEREMIAS, colonist, born in Amsterdam, Holland, presumably about 1632, was in charge of Rensselaerswick, N. Y., for sixteen years. When the English threatened New Netherland he was appointed to preside over the convention in New Amsterdam to adopt measures of defence. In 1664, after the province was surrendered to the English, he allied himself to the Duke of York on the condition that no offence should be offered his colony. Later Rensselaerswick was erected into a manor. Under the pen-name of "New Netherland Mercury" he was the author of narratives of various events in the colonies. He died in Rensselaerswick, N. Y., in October, 1674.

Another son, NICHOLAS, clergyman, born in Amsterdam, Holland, about 1638, was made chaplain of the Dutch embassy in England; appointed a deacon in the English Church, and in 1674 came to New York. In September, 1675, he was made colleague pastor of the Dutch Church in Albany, but two years later was deposed by the governor. He died in Albany, N. Y., in 1678.

Van Rensselaer, MARIANA GRISWOLD, author; born in New York City, Feb. 23, 1851; received a private education; and later studied art and architecture. She contributed to magazines and periodicals, and wrote *Henry Hobson Richardson and Works; American Etchers; Should We Ask for the Suffrage?* etc.

Van Rensselaer, SOLOMON, military officer; born in Rensselaer county, N. Y., Aug. 6, 1774; was a son of Henry Killian Van Rensselaer; entered the military service as cornet of cavalry in 1792, and in the battle of Fallen Timbers, fought by Wayne, Aug. 20, 1794, was shot through the lungs. From 1801 to 1810 he was adjutant-general of New York militia. He was lieutenant-colonel of New York volunteers in 1812, and commanded the troops that attacked those of the British at Queenston, Oct. 13 of that year. At the landing-place he received four wounds, and had to be carried back to Lewiston. From 1819 to 1822 he was a member of Congress, and from 1822 until 1839 postmaster at Albany. He published a *Narrative of the Affair at Queenston* (1836). He died in Albany, N. Y., April 23, 1852.

SOLOMON VAN RENSSELAER.

Van Rensselaer, STEPHEN, last of the patroons; born in New York, Nov. 1, 1765; son of Nicholas Van Rensselaer; married a daughter of Gen. Philip Schuyler in 1783. In 1789 he was a member of the legislature, and State Senator from 1790 to 1795. From 1795 to 1801 he was lieutenant-governor. He presided over the constitutional convention in 1801, and in 1810–11 was one of the commissioners to ascertain the feasibility of a canal to connect the waters of the lakes with the Hudson. From 1816 until his death he was one of the canal commissioners, and for fifteen years president of the board. In 1801 he commanded the State cavalry, with the rank of major-general; and when the War of 1812–15 broke out was chief of the New York State militia. In 1819 he was elected a regent of the State University, and afterwards its chancellor. In 1820 he was president of the State agricultural board, a member of the constitutional convention in 1821, and of Congress from 1823 to 1829. At his expense, and under his direction, a geological survey of New York was made in 1821–23. In 1824 he established at Troy, N. Y., a scientific school for the instruction of teachers, which was incorporated in 1826 as the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute. He died in Albany, Jan. 26, 1839.

STEPHEN VAN RENSSELAER.

Van Rensselaerswick, or RENSSELAERSWICK. See VAN RENSSELAER, KILLIAN.

Van Reypen, WILLIAM KNICKERBOCKER, naval officer; born in Bergen, N. J., Nov. 14, 1840; graduated at the Medical Department of the University of New York in 1862; served at the Naval Hospital, New York, in 1862, and on the frigate *St. Lawrence* of the East Gulf blockading squadron, in 1863–64; appointed medical director in March, 1865; surgeon-general United States navy, and chief of the bureau of medicine and surgery with the rank of rear-admiral, Oct. 22, 1897. During the American-Spanish War he designed and equipped the ambulance ship *Solace*. He was retired as a rear-admiral in 1902.

Van Santwood, GEORGE, lawyer; born in Belleville, N. J., Dec. 8, 1819; graduated at Union College in 1841; admitted to the bar; practised in Kinderhook, N. Y., in 1846–52; district attorney of Rensselaer county in 1860–63. His publications include *Life of Algernon Sidney; Principles of Pleading in Civil Actions Under the New York Code; Lives of the Chief-Justices of the United States; Precedents of Pleading;* and *Practice in the Supreme Court of New York in Equity Actions.* He died in East Albany, N. Y., March 6, 1863.

Van Schaack, PETER, jurist; born in Kinderhook, N. Y., March, 1747; was educated at King's College (now Columbia University), and had the reputation of being an accomplished classical scholar. While in college he married Elizabeth Cruger; and, choosing the law as a profession, entered the office of Mr. Sylvester, in Albany, concluding his studies with William Smith, Sr., in New York. Soon rising to eminence in his profession, he was appointed, at the age

of twenty-six years, sole reviser of the colonial statutes. When the Revolutionary War broke out he was one of the New York committee of correspondence; but when the question, Shall the American colonies take up arms against Great Britain? had to be answered by every American citizen, his voice was in the negative, and during the war he was a conscientious loyalist, but maintained an attitude of strict neutrality. He did not escape persecution, for suspicion was everywhere keen-scented. The committee on conspiracies at Albany summoned him before them (June, 1777), and required him to take the oath of allegiance to the Continental Congress. He refused, and was ordered to Boston within ten days. From that time he was constantly restrained; and when he asked the privilege of taking his wife, who was dying with consumption, to New York, it was refused. She died, and he was banished from his native country in October, 1778, when he went to England, and remained there until the summer of 1785, when he returned home, and was received with open arms by men of all parties. While in England he had associated with the most distinguished men of the realm, who regarded him as one of the brightest Americans among them, for his scholarship, legal attainments, and rare social qualities were remarkable. These made his mansion at Kinderhook the resort of some of the most eminent men of the land, and his society was sought continually. He died in Kinderhook, N. Y., Sept. 17, 1832.

Van Schaick, Gozen, military officer; born in Albany, N. Y., in January, 1737; served in the French and Indian War, taking part in the expeditions against Ticonderoga, Crown Point, Fort Frontenac, and Niagara (1756–59), and was major in Colonel Johnson's regiment in 1759. On the breaking-out of the Revolutionary War, he was made colonel of the 2d New York Regiment, and late in 1776 was in command of a battalion sent to the vicinity of Cherry Valley to protect the inhabitants against Brant and his followers, in which work he was vigilant and active. In the battle of Monmouth he was a brigadier-general under Lord Stirling. In the spring of 1779 he was sent by Washington to destroy the settlement of the Onondaga Indians, for the performance of which service Congress gave him its thanks. He was made brigadier-general by brevet, Oct. 10, 1783. Van Schaick was a rigid disciplinarian, and his regiment one of the best in the service. He died in Albany, N. Y., July 4, 1787.

Van Twiller, Wouter or Walter, colonial governor; was a resident of Nieukirk, Holland, about 1580; was chosen to succeed Peter Minuits as governor of New Netherland in 1633. He was one of the clerks in the West India Company's warehouse at Amsterdam, and had married a niece of Killian Van Rensselaer, the wealthiest of the newly created patroons. Van Rensselaer had employed him to ship cattle to his domain on Hudson River, and it was probably his interest to have this agent in New Netherland; so, through his influence, the incompetent Van Twiller was appointed director-general of the colony. He was inexperienced in the art of government, slow in speech, incompetent to decide, narrow-minded, and irresolute. He was called by a satirist "Walter the Doubter." Washington Irving, in his broad caricature of him, says: "His habits were as regular as his person. He daily took his four stated meals, appropriating exactly an hour to each; he smoked and doubted eight hours, and he slept the remaining twelve of the four-and-twenty." He knew the details of the counting-room routine, but nothing of men or the affairs of State. He ever came into collision with abler men in the colony.

In the company's armed ship *Soutberg*, with 104 soldiers, he sailed for Manhattan. With him also came Everardus Bogardus, the first clergyman sent to New Netherland, and Adam Roelandsen, schoolmaster. The chief business of Van Twiller's administration appears to have been to maintain and extend the commercial operations of his principals, the West India Company. He repaired Fort Amsterdam, erected a guard-house and barracks, and built expensive windmills; but the latter were so near the fort that their wings frequently missed the wind. Buildings were erected for officers and other employés, and several in various parts

of the province. Of this extravagance complaint was made, and his shortcomings were severely denounced by Dominie Bogardus, who, in a letter to him, called him a "child of the devil," and threatened him with "such a shake from the pulpit" on the following Sunday "as would make him shudder." His administration was so much complained of in Holland that he was recalled in 1637. He left the colony in a sorry condition, but with an ample private estate. Van Rensselaer seems to have had confidence in Van Twiller, for he made him executor of his last will and testament. In a controversy, Van Twiller took sides against the West India Company, and vilified the administration of Stuyvesant. The company were indignant, and spoke of Van Twiller as an ungrateful man who had "sucked his wealth from the breasts of the company which he now abuses." He died in Amsterdam, Holland, after 1646.

Van Wart, Isaac, patriot; born in Greenburg, N. Y., in 1760; engaged in farming in Westchester county, N. Y. During the Revolutionary War he was an ardent sympathizer with the patriot cause, and on Sept. 23, 1780, with John Paulding and David Williams, captured Maj. John André (*q. v.*) when that officer was returning from the American lines. For this act each of the three captors received the thanks of Congress, a pension of $200 per annum for life, and a silver medal. He died in Mount Pleasant, N. Y., May 23, 1828. A monument was erected to his memory by the citizens of Westchester county in 1829.

Vance, Zebulon Baird, legislator; born near Asheville, N. C., May 13, 1830; received a collegiate education; admitted to the bar in 1852; elected to Congress in 1858 and re-elected in 1859; strongly opposed the secession of his native State, but afterwards entered the Confederate army as colonel; and was elected governor of North Carolina in 1862. While in office he purchased a Clyde steamship, which successfully ran the blockade several times, landing clothing, arms, and general supplies. In 1863 he advocated peace negotiations with the national government, and urged Jefferson Davis to seek a cessation of hostilities. He was re-elected governor in 1864 and 1876; and was United States Senator from North Carolina in 1879–94. He died in Washington, D. C., April 14, 1894.

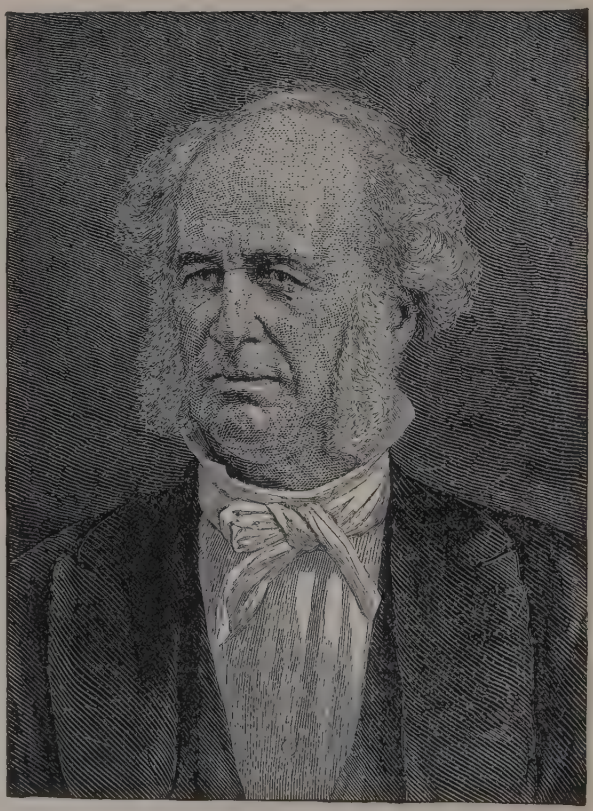
Vancouver, George, navigator; born in England about 1758; accompanied Captain Cook in his last two voyages. In 1790 he was made master in the royal navy, and was sent out in command of the *Discovery* to ascertain whether in North America, between lat. 30° and 60° N., there was any interior sea or water communication between the known gulfs of the Atlantic and the Pacific oceans. He sailed from England in April, 1791, and in the spring of 1792 crossed from the Sandwich Islands to the American coast, when Nootka was surrendered by the Spaniards, in accordance with previous arrangements. He did not find the sought-for waters, and returned to London, late in 1795, with shattered health. His name was given to a large island on the western coast of North America. He devoted himself to the arrangement of his manuscripts for publication, and the narrative of his voyages, published in 3 volumes after his death, was edited by his brother. He died near London, May 10, 1798.

Vancouver Island, an island in the North Pacific Ocean, near the mainland of the State of Washington and British Columbia, from which it is separated by the Gulf of Georgia. It is about 300 miles long, and was named after Capt. Geo. Vancouver, an English navigator, who was sent on a voyage of discovery to seek any navigable communication between the North Pacific and North Atlantic oceans. He sailed in April, 1791, and returned Sept. 24, 1795. He compiled an account of his survey of the northwest coast of America, and died in 1798. Settlements, made here by the English in 1781, were seized by the Spaniards in 1789, but restored. By treaty with the United States, in 1846, the island was secured to Great Britain. It has become of importance since the discovery of gold in the neighboring mainland, in 1858, and the colonization of British Columbia. The island was united with British Columbia in August, 1866; and on May 24, 1868, Victoria, founded in 1857, was declared the capital.

Vanderbilt, Cornelius, financier; born near Stapleton, Staten Island, N. Y., May

27, 1794; at the age of sixteen years he bought a small boat, with which he carried passengers and "truck" between Staten Island and New York. At eighteen he owned two boats, and was captain of a third. Prosperity constantly attended him. He married at nineteen, and when he was twenty-three he was worth $9,000 and out of debt. Then he settled in New York, where he bought vessels of various kinds; and in 1817 assisted in building the first steamboat that plied between New York and New Brunswick, of which he was captain, with a salary of $1,000 a year. He commanded a finer boat in 1818, his wife at the same time keeping a hotel at New Brunswick. He soon had full control of that steamboat line, and in 1827 he made $40,000 a year profit. He started steamboats in various waters—the Hudson, the Delaware, Long Island Sound, etc., everywhere seeking to have a monopoly of the business and profits. His wealth greatly increased. He engaged in establishing steamboat and other connection between New York and California. After 1848 he fought opposition vigorously and triumphed. In 1856 he received a large subsidy for withdrawing his transit line; and in 1861 he presented to the government of the United States the *Vanderbilt*, a steam-vessel that cost $800,000, which was used in cruising after Confederate privateers. During his steamship career he owned twenty-one steamships, eleven of which he built; and, with steamboats, his entire fleet numbered sixty-six. For many years he was popularly called "Commodore."

When he abandoned the water in 1864 his accumulations were estimated at $40,000,000. As early as 1844 he had become interested in railroads; now he turned his capital and his energies in that direction. He obtained control of one railroad after another; and at the time of his death his various roads covered lines more than 2,000 miles in extent, and, under one management, represented an aggregate capital of $150,000,000, of which he and members of his family owned fully one-half. His entire property at his death, in New York City, Jan. 4, 1877, was estimated in value at nearly $100,000,000, nearly all of which he bequeathed to his son William H., that the great railroad enterprise might go on as a unit and increase. In 1873 Mr. Vanderbilt founded the Vanderbilt University in Nashville, with $500,000, afterwards increased to $1,000,000.



CORNELIUS VANDERBILT.

Vanderbilt, CORNELIUS, capitalist; born in New Dorp, Staten Island, N. Y., Nov. 27, 1843; eldest son of William

Henry Vanderbilt; received an academic education and became a clerk in the Shoe and Leather Bank, and later in the banking firm of Kissam Brothers; began his study of finance and railroad management in 1865, and became treasurer of the Harlem Railroad in 1867. When his father died, on Dec. 8, 1885, he became head of the Vanderbilt family and managed the Vanderbilt system of railroads till 1895. He was stricken with paralysis in July, 1896, and never entirely recovered. He made numerous gifts to education and charity, including $850,000 to the Church of St. Bartholomew; $1,500,000 to Yale University, part of which was given to erect Vanderbilt Hall, a dormitory built as a memorial to his son William H., who died there while a student; $100,000 to the Church of St. John the Divine; $50,000 to St. Luke's Hospital; and a like sum to the Episcopal Domestic and Foreign Missionary Society. He died in New York City, Sept. 12, 1899.

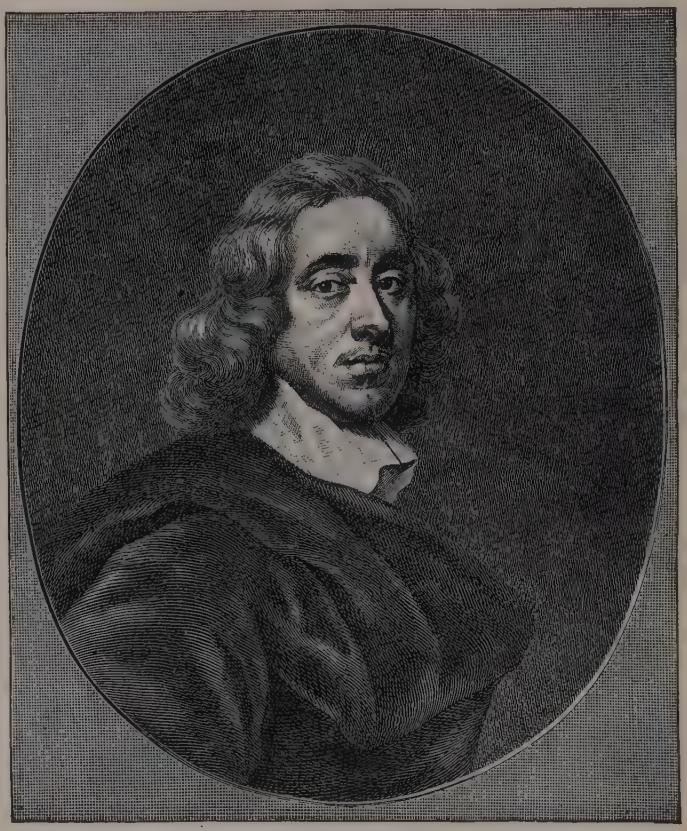
Vanderbilt, WILLIAM HENRY, capitalist; born in New Brunswick, N. J., May 8, 1821; son of Cornelius Vanderbilt; educated at Columbia Grammar School; settled in New Dorp, Staten Island, and became the manager of the Staten Island Railroad. When his father engaged in railroad financiering at the age of seventy (1864) William took charge as vice-president of the Harlem and Hudson River companies, and later of the New York Central. He received about $90,000,000 under the will of his father in 1877. His gifts to various objects include $200,000 to the endowment of Vanderbilt University and $100,000 for a theological department there; $500,000 for new buildings for the College of Physicians and Surgeons; $100,000 to the trainmen and laborers of the New York Central Railroad; $50,000 to the Church of St. Bartholomew; and $103,000 to bring from Egypt and erect in Central Park the obelisk which Khedive Ismail gave to the United States. He died in New York City, Dec. 8, 1885.

Vanderbilt University, an educational institution in Nashville, Tenn.; an outgrowth of a movement in the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, for higher education in that denomination. It was known as the Central University of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, until the elder Cornelius Vanderbilt gave it $500,000, when its name was changed to that of the donor. Later Mr. Vanderbilt increased his donation to $1,000,000, and at various times his son, William Henry, made gifts amounting to $450,000. The university has departments of theology, medicine, law, dentistry, engineering, and pharmacy. In 1912 it reported grounds and buildings valued at over $1,250,000; endowment funds $1,600,000; volumes in the library, 40,000; average number of faculty, 120; average student attendance, 1,000; graduates, over 4,800; president, J. H. Kirkland, LL.D., Ph.D.

Vanderheyden, DIRK, land-owner; born in Albany, N. Y., about 1680; was an inn-keeper and engaged in land speculation. In 1720 he secured a grant of 490 acres at an annual fee of four fat fowls and five schepels of wheat. Later the grant was called Vanderheyden's Ferry, till 1789, when it was named Troy. In 1725 he built upon this site the Vanderheyden mansion, one of the best samples of Dutch architecture at that period in New York State, which was constructed with bricks imported from Holland. He died in Albany, N. Y., in October, 1738.

Vanderlyn, JOHN, painter; born in Kingston, N. Y., Oct. 15, 1776; received instructions in painting from Gilbert Stuart at the age of sixteen years, and in 1796, through the aid of Aaron Burr, went to Paris, and studied there five years. He returned, but went to Europe again, where he resided from 1803 to 1815. There he painted a large picture of *Marius Seated amid the Ruins of Carthage*, for which he was awarded the gold medal at the Louvre in 1808, and was the recipient of high commendation from Napoleon. On his return to the United States he painted portraits of distinguished citizens, and introduced the panoramic method of exhibiting pictures. In 1832 he received a commission to paint a full-length portrait of Washington for the House of Representatives; and in 1839 he painted for one of the panels of the rotunda of the Capitol *The Landing of Columbus*. He died in Kingston, N. Y., Sept. 24, 1852.

Vane, Sir Henry, colonial governor; born in Hadlow, Kent, England, in 1612; was a son of Sir Henry, Secretary of State under Kings James and Charles I. In early life he refused to take the oath of supremacy, became a Puritan and a republican; arrived at Boston in 1835 (Oct. 3), and was almost immediately chosen governor. His was a stormy administration, for it was agitated by the Hutchinson controversy (see Hutchinson, Anne). Vane was enlightened and tolerant. He abhorred bigotry in every form, warmly defended the inviolability of the rights of conscience and the exemption of religion from all control by the civil authorities, and had no sympathy with the attacks of the clergy upon Mrs. Hutchinson. Winthrop, whom he had superseded as governor of Massachusetts, led a strong opposition to him, and the next year he was defeated as a candidate for re-election, but became a member of the General Court.



Sir Henry Vane.

Late in the summer of 1637 he sailed for England, was elected to Parliament, became one of the treasurers of the navy, and in 1640 was knighted. In the Long Parliament he was a member, and a strong opponent of royalty. He was the principal mover of the solemn league and covenant, and in 1648 was a leader of the minority in Parliament which favored the rejection of terms of settlement offered by the King. In 1649 he was a member of the council of state, and had almost exclusive direction of the navy. He was then considered one of the foremost men in the nation, and Milton wrote a fine sonnet in his praise. He and Cromwell were brought in conflict by the forcible dissolution of the Long Parliament by the latter. Vane was leader of the Rebellion Parliament in 1659. When Charles II. ascended the throne, Vane, considered one of the worst enemies of his beheaded father, was committed to the Tower in 1662, and was executed June 14. Sir Henry was chiefly instrumental in procuring the first charter for Rhode Island.

Varick, Richard, military officer; born in Hackensack, N. J., March 25, 1753; was a lawyer in the city of New York when the Revolutionary War began, and entered the service as captain in McDougall's regi-

ment. Soon afterwards he became General Schuyler's military secretary, and remained so until that officer was superseded by Gates in the summer of 1777, continuing with the army, with the rank of colonel, until the capture of Burgoyne. Varick was inspector-general at West Point until after Arnold's treason, when he became a member of Washington's military family, acting as his recording secretary until near the close of the Revolution. When the British evacuated the city of New York, Nov. 25, 1783, Colonel Varick was made recorder there, and held the office until 1789, when he became attorney-general of the State. Afterwards he was elected mayor of New York, and held that office until 1801. He and Samuel Jones were appointed (1786) to revise the laws of the State of New York, and in 1718 he was speaker of the Assembly. He was one of the founders of the American Bible Society. He died in Jersey City, July 30, 1831.

Varnum, JAMES MITCHELL, military officer; born in Dracut, Mass., Dec. 17, 1748; graduated at Rhode Island College (now Brown University) in 1769, and became a lawyer in East Greenwich, R. I. In 1784 he was commander of the Kentish Guards, from the ranks of which came General Greene and about thirty other officers of the Revolution. He was made colonel of the 1st Rhode Island Regiment in January, 1775, and soon afterwards entered the Continental army, becoming brigadier-general in February, 1777. He was at Red Bank (Fort Mercer), in command of all the troops on the Jersey side of the Delaware, when the British took Philadelphia; and it was under his direction that Major Thayer made his gallant defence of FORT MIFFLIN (*q. v.*). General Varnum was at Valley Forge the following winter; took part in the battle of Monmouth (June 28, 1778); joined Sullivan in his expedition to Rhode Island, serving under the immediate orders of Lafayette, and resigned in 1779, when he was chosen major-general of militia, which office he held until his death. In the Continental Congress (1780–82 and 1786–87) he was very active, and an eloquent speaker. Appointed judge of the Supreme Court in the Northwestern Territory, he removed to Marietta, O., in June, 1788, and held the office until his death there, Jan. 10, 1789.

Varnum, JOSEPH BRADLEY, lawyer; born in Washington, D. C., June 9, 1818; graduated at Yale College in 1838; admitted to the bar and followed his profession in Baltimore for several years; removed to New York City and there obtained a large practice; member of the New York legislature in 1849–51 and speaker in the latter year. His publications include *The Seat of Government of the United States*, and *The Washington Sketch-Book*. He died in Astoria, N. Y., Dec. 31, 1874.

Varnum, JOSEPH BRADLEY, legislator; born in Dracut, Mass., Jan. 29, 1750; brother of James M. Varnum; was an active patriot during the Revolution, both in the council and in the field; member of Congress in 1795–1811; speaker of the tenth and the eleventh Congresses; and United States Senator in 1811–17. He had been made major-general of militia at an early day, and at the time of his death, in Dracut, Mass., Sept. 21, 1821, was the oldest officer of that rank in Massachusetts, and also senior member of the United States Senate.

Varuna, THE. In the naval battle on the Mississippi, below New Orleans, the chief efforts of the Confederate gunboats seemed to be directed against the *Cayuga*, Captain Bailey, and the *Varuna*, Captain Boggs. The *Cayuga* had compelled three of the Confederate gunboats to surrender to her, and was fighting desperately, when the *Varuna* rushed into the thickest of the battle to rescue her. Then the *Varuna* became the chief object of the wrath of the Confederates. "Immediately after passing the forts," reported Captain Boggs, "I found myself amid a nest of rebel steamers." As he penetrated this "nest," he poured a broadside upon each vessel as he passed. The first that received his fire appeared to be crowded with troops. Her boiler was exploded by a shot, and she drifted ashore. Soon afterwards the *Varuna* drove three other vessels ashore in flames, and all of them blew up. Very soon afterwards she was fiercely attacked by the ram *Governor Moore*, commanded by Captain Kennon, formerly of the United States navy. It raked along the *Varuna's* port-gangway, doing considerable damage; but Boggs soon drove her out of action, when another ram, its

beak under water, struck the *Varuna* at the same point. The shots of the latter glanced harmlessly from the armor of her assailant. The ram backed off a short distance, and, darting forward, gave the *Varuna* another blow in the same place, which crushed in her side. The ram became entangled, and was drawn nearly to the side of the *Varuna*, when Boggs gave her five 8-inch shells abaft her armor from his port-guns, and drove her ashore in flames. Finding his own vessel sinking, he ran he into the bank, let go her anchor, and tied her bow fast to the trees. All that time her guns were at work crippling the *Moore*, and did not cease until the water wa over the gun-trucks. Then he got his wounded and crew safely on shore. The *Moore* was soon afterwards set on fire by Kennon, who abandoned her, leaving his wounded to perish in the flames. This was one of the most daring exploits of the war, and received great applause.

Vasco da Gama, navigator; born in Sines, Portugal, presumably about 1469; was appointed by Emanuel of Portugal commander of an expedition to find an ocean route to the East Indies. He sailed from Lisbon in July, 1497, and reached Calicut in the following November, after having sailed around the Cape of Good Hope; returned to Lisbon in 1499; made a second voyage to India in 1502–3; and was appointed viceroy there in the year 1524. He died in Cochin, India, Dec. 24, 1524.

Vasquez de Allyon, LUKE, colonist; born in Spain; removed to Santo Domingo, and acquired extensive mines there. Cruelty had almost exterminated the natives, and Vasquez sailed northward in two ships, in 1520, in search of men on some island, to work his mines. Entering St. Helen's Sound, on the coast of South Carolina, by accident, he saw with delight the shores swarming with wonder-struck natives, who believed his vessels to be sea-monsters. When the Spaniards landed, the natives fled to the woods. Two of them were caught, carried on board of the ships, feasted, dressed in gay Spanish costume, and sent back. The sachem was so pleased that he sent fifty of his subjects to the vessels with fruits, and furnished guides to the Spaniards in their long excursions through the woods. When Vasquez was ready to leave, he invited a large number of native men to a feast on board his ships. They were lured below, made stupidly drunk, and were carried away to be made slaves. Many of them died from starvation, for they refused to eat, and one of the ships foundered, and all on board perished. The remainder were made slaves in the mines. Vasquez was rewarded as a discoverer of new lands (see AMERICA, DISCOVERERS OF), and made governor of Chicora, as the natives called the region of South Carolina. With three ships he proceeded to take possession of the territory and plant a colony. On Beaufort Island, Port Royal Sound, they began to build a town. The natives seemed friendly, and very soon the sachem invited the Spaniards to a great feast near the mouth of the Combahee River. About 200 of them went. It lasted three days. When all the Spaniards were asleep, the Indians fell upon and murdered the whole of them. Then they attacked the builders on Beaufort. Some of the Spaniards escaped to their ships, and among them was Vasquez, mortally wounded. The treachery taught the Indians by the Spaniards was repeated in full measure.

Vassar, MATTHEW, philanthropist; born in Tuddenham, England, April 29, 1792; came to the United States with his father in 1796, when the family settled on a small farm near Poughkeepsie, N. Y., and established a brewery of ale in a small way. In 1812 Matthew began the business at Poughkeepsie, and by this and other enterprises he accumulated a large fortune. In declining life, as he was childless, he contemplated the establishment of some public institution. At the suggestion of his niece (Miss Booth), a successful teacher of girls, he resolved to establish a college for young women, and in February, 1861, at a meeting of a board of trustees which he had chosen, he delivered to them $408,000 for the founding of such an institution, now known as VASSAR COLLEGE (*q. v.*). A spacious building was erected, and in September, 1865, it was opened with a full faculty and over 300 students. Other gifts to the college and bequests in his will increased the amount to over $800,000. He died in Poughkeepsie, N. Y., June 23, 1868.

Vassar College, the first institution for imparting a full collegiate education to women established in the world; founded by Matthew Vassar in Poughkeepsie, N. Y., in 1861. The college edifice was erected during the Civil War, and a few weeks after its close a faculty was chosen (June, 1865). The institution was opened for the reception of students in September following, when nearly 350 young women entered. In 1864 Mr. Vassar purchased and presented to the college a collection of oil and water-color pictures for its art-gallery, at a cost of $20,000, including college edifice stands in the midst of 200 acres of fine land, on which is a lake used for boating and skating purposes, which is fed by springs of pure water, from which the college is supplied. From the start Vassar College has been successful in every particular, and is pronounced by educators at home and abroad as a model institution. It has the honor of being the pioneer in the work of the higher education of women. In 1912 the college reported grounds and buildings valued at over $2,500,000; productive funds, $1,400,000; volumes in the library, 68,000;

VASSAR COLLEGE FROM THE LAKE.

an art library of about 8,000 volumes. Mr. Vassar bequeathed to the college $50,000 as a lecture fund, $50,000 as an auxiliary fund, and $50,000 as a library, art, and cabinet fund, the income of each to be applied to the purpose for which it was intended—namely, the first-named for employing lecturers, the second for aiding meritorious students unable to pay the whole expense of a collegiate course, and the third for the enlargement of the library, art-gallery, and cabinets. He also bequeathed $125,000 as a repair fund, to meet necessary expenses in repairs of and additions to the college buildings. The average student attendance, 1,050; ordinary income $800,000.

Vaudreuil, Louis Philippe de Rigaud, Marquis de, naval officer; born near Castelnaudary, France, in 1640; had been tried as a soldier when, in 1689, he was named governor of Montreal, under Frontenac. He served in an expedition against the Iroquois, and also in defence of Quebec against the armament under Phipps, in 1690. Active and brave in military life, he was made governor of Canada in 1703, and remained so until his death, Oct. 11, 1725. During his administration he gave the English colonies

infinite trouble by inciting the Indians to make perpetual forays on the frontier. His son, PIERRE FRANCOIS, the last French governor of Canada, was born in Quebec in 1698, and died in France, 1764. He, too, was a soldier in the French army; became governor of Three Rivers in 1733, and of Louisiana in 1743; was made governor of Canada in 1755, but after the surrender of Montreal was imprisoned in the Bastile.

His grandson, bearing his name, was born in Quebec, Oct. 28, 1724; entered the French navy in 1740; commanded the fleet at the siege of Savannah in 1779; and served under Count de Grasse in the siege of Yorktown. He died in Paris, Dec. 14, 1802.

Vaughan, BENJAMIN, merchant; born in Jamaica, W. I., April 19, 1751. Although not officially connected with either government, as a friend of Franklin and Lord Shelburne he was influential in making the Treaty of Paris, 1783. He died in Hallowell, Maine, Dec. 8, 1835.

Vaughan. SIR JOHN, military officer; born in England in 1738; came to America and served on the staff of Sir Henry Clinton. In January, 1777, he was made major-general in the British army. In the battle of Long Island he led the grenadiers, and was wounded at the landing on Long Island afterwards. He participated in the capture of forts Clinton and Montgomery, in the Hudson Highlands, and burned Kingston and devastated other places on the shores. In May, 1779, he captured Stony and Verplanck's points on the Hudson; returned to England in the fall. He died in Martinique, June 30, 1795.

Vaughan, WILLIAM, military officer; born in Portsmouth, N. H., Sept. 12, 1703; graduated at Harvard University in 1722; was lieutenant-colonel of militia in the Louisburg expedition in 1745, under Sir William Pepperell; and, feeling slighted in the distribution of awards, he went to London, England, to present his claims, where he died, Dec. 11, 1746.

Vaughn, SUE LAUDON. On April 26, she inaugurated Memorial Day in the Southern States by leading a band of women in strewing with flowers the Confederate graves at Vicksburg, Miss., a custom that has since been maintained throughout the South, corresponding to the Decoration Day of the North. She died in Washington, D. C., July 23, 1911.

Vaux, CALVERT, landscape architect; born in London, England, Dec. 20, 1824; came to the United States in 1848 with Andrew J. Downing, of whom he became a partner. They were associated in laying out the grounds that surrounded the Capitol and Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D. C. Later he was associated with Frederick Law Olmsted, and they presented the designs for laying out Central Park, New York City, and Prospect Park, Brooklyn, N. Y., that were accepted. He designed many parks in Chicago and Buffalo, the State reservation at Niagara Falls, the plans for Riverside and Morningside parks, New York City, and parks in other cities. Mr. Vaux was landscape architect of the Department of Public Parks of New York City, member of the Consolidated Commission of Greater New York, and landscape architect of the State reservation at Niagara. He died in Bensonhurst, L. I., Nov. 19, 1895.

Vaux, ROBERTS, jurist; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Jan. 25, 1786; admitted to the bar in 1808; judge of the county court of Philadelphia in 1835. Most of his life was devoted to charity, education, and the reform of the penal code. He was one of the originators of the public-school system of Pennsylvania; a founder of the Deaf and Dumb Asylum, the Philadelphia Savings Funds, and other societies. Among his works is *The Life of Anthony Benezet*, etc. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., Jan. 7, 1836.

Veazey, WHEELOCK GRAVES, lawyer; born in Brentwood, N. H., Dec. 5, 1835; graduated at Dartmouth College in 1859; admitted to the bar in 1860; served in the Civil War in 1861–63; promoted colonel of the 16th Vermont Volunteers in October, 1862; reporter of the Supreme Court of Vermont in 1864–72; judge of the State Supreme Court in 1879–89; member of the Interstate Commerce Commission in 1889–97; was commander-in-chief of the Grand Army of the Republic in 1890. He died in Washington, D. C., March 22, 1898.

Vedder, ELIHU, artist; born in New York, Feb. 26, 1836; educated in Brinkerhoff School, Brooklyn, N. Y.; studied with Tompkins H. Mattison in Sherburne, N. Y.,

and with François Edouard Picot, in Paris; and later in Italy, returning to the United States in 1861. He opened a studio in New York; was elected an associate of the National Academy in 1863; and removed to Rome in 1867. Among his best known works are the five decorated panels and the mosaic *Minerva* in the Congressional Library at Washington, D. C.

Velasquez, Diego de, colonist; born in Cuellar, Segovia, Spain, in 1465; served in the conquest of Granada; went to Hispaniola with Columbus in 1493; and was prominent in the wars against the Indians. In 1511, on being commissioned to conquer Cuba, he left Hispaniola with 300 soldiers and landed near the eastern extremity of the island. The unarmed natives were easily conquered, and he found but little resistance except from Cacique Hatuey, fugitive from Hispaniola, whom he captured and burned at the stake. He founded Bayamo, Trinidad, Porto Principe, Matanzas, Santo Espiritu, and Santiago, where he established his government and assumed command. In 1517 he went with Cordova on his slave-seeking expedition, which resulted in the discovery of Yucatan. Encouraged by the results of this expedition he sent out another in 1518 under Hernando Cortez, who arrived at Vera Cruz and took command. On hearing that Cortez had sent commissioners to Spain to obtain the title to the newly discovered country, Velasquez immediately despatched a force under Panfilo de Narvaez to bring back Cortez as a prisoner. In this attempt Narvaez was defeated by Cortez, and so the effort of Velasquez to secure the Mexican conquest failed. He died in Havana in 1522 or 1523.

Venable, William Henry, educator; born in Warren county, O., April 29, 1826; was trained for teaching, and has been so engaged since 1860. He is the author of *A History of the United States; Footprints of the Pioneers; Beginnings of Literary Culture in the Ohio Valley; John Hancock, Educator; Life and Writings of Gen. William Haines Lytle; Tales from Ohio History;* etc.

Venezuela Question. On Dec. 17, 1895, President Cleveland sent to Congress a special message on this question, which for a time caused great excitement and seemed to threaten to involve the United States in a war with Great Britain. This condition of affairs was caused by the sudden renewal by Great Britain of an old claim to territory adjoining British Guiana, but held by Venezuela. This territory contains about 500 square miles and is inhabited by over 100,000 people. It also contains rich gold-mines. The territory had been a subject of dispute ever since 1814, when Holland ceded her South American possessions to Great Britain. In 1841, Robert Schömburgk, acting for Great Britain, erected a boundary-line, claiming for Great Britain the entire Atlantic coast as far as the Orinoco. Venezuela protested and forcibly removed this line. For fifty years after Great Britain made various claims. In 1887 diplomatic relations between Great Britain and Venezuela were broken off because of the dispute.

In the United States the action of Great Britain was closely watched, it being believed that her attempt to extend her boundary-line was in violation of the Monroe doctrine. On Feb. 20, 1895, the United States offered to arbitrate the dispute, but Great Britain refused. Late in 1895 information reached the United States that Great Britain intended to land troops on the disputed territory. Then President Cleveland issued the message already referred to, for the text of which see Cleveland, Grover. In his message the President asked Congress for leave to appoint a commission to visit Venezuela and sift the claims of both parties. This Congress at once granted, voting $100,000 for the purpose.

Under this authority President Cleveland appointed the following commission: Judge David J. Brewer, chairman; Richard H. Alvey; Andrew D. White; Frederick R. Coudert, and Daniel C. Gilman. Upon their report both Great Britain and Venezuela agreed to submit the dispute to arbitration, and under this agreement the following arbitrators were selected: Chief-Justice Fuller, Associate Justice Brewer, Lord Chief-Justice Russell, of Killowen, Sir Richard Henn Collins, and Professor Martens. Ex-President Harrison, Gen. B. F. Tracy, M. Mallet-Prevost, and the Marquis of Rojas were counsel for Venezuela, and Attorney-General Sir Richard Webster and Sir Robert Reed for Great Britain.

The arbitration tribunal met in Paris on June 15, 1899, and on Oct. 3 following rendered the following award unanimously:

The undersigned, by these presents, give and publish our decision, determining and judging, touching and concerning the questions that have been submitted to us by said arbitration; and, in conformity with said arbitration, we decide, declare, and pronounce definitely that the line of frontier of the colony of British Guiana and the United States of Venezuela is as follows:

Starting on the coast at Point Playa, the frontier shall follow a straight line to the confluence of the Barima and the Maruima, thence following the thalweg of the latter to the source of the Corentin, otherwise called the Cutari, River.

Thence it shall proceed to the confluence of the Haiowa and the Amakuru; thence following the thalweg of the Amakuru to its source in the Plain of Imataka; thence in a southwesterly direction along the highest ridge of the Imataka Mountains to the highest point of the Imataka Chain, opposite the source of the Barima and the principal chain of the Imataka Mountains; thence in a southeast direction to the source of the Acarabisi.

Following the thalweg of the Acarabisi to the Cuyuni, the northern bank of which it shall follow in a westerly direction to the confluence of the Cuyuni and the Vanamu; thence along the thalweg of the Vanamu to its westernmost source; thence in a straight line to the summit of Mount Roraima; thence to the source of the Cotinga.

From this point the frontier shall follow the thalweg of the Cotinga to its confluence with the Takutu; thence along the thalweg of the Takutu to its source; thence in a straight line to the most western point of the Akarai Mountains, the highest ridge of which it shall follow to the source of the Corentin, whence it will follow the course of the river.

It is stipulated that the frontier hereby delimited reserves and in no way prejudices questions actually existing or that may hereafter arise between Great Britain and the republic of Brazil, or between the republic of Brazil and Venezuela. In fixing the above delimitation, the arbitrators consider and decide that, in time of peace, the rivers Amakuru and Barima shall be open to merchant shipping of all nations, on condition that the dues levied by Venezuela and British Guiana, on ships traversing the parts of those rivers owned by them respectively, shall be imposed in accordance with the same tariff on Venezuelan and British vessels.

In December, 1902, Great Britain and Germany attempted to collect claims against Venezuela. Puerto Cabello was bombarded; Italy joined the other powers; the Venezuelan ports were blockaded. President Roosevelt was asked by the powers to arbitrate the controversy, but declined. The Permanent Court of Arbitration at The Hague on Feb. 22, 1904, decided against Venezuela, the United States to carry out the award. From 1895 to 1905 there was constant friction between Venezuela and the United States, and with France, England, and Germany. See CASTRO, CIPRIANO.

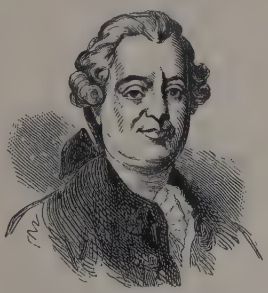
Vera Cruz, CAPTURE OF. In January, 1847, Gen. Winfield Scott reached the mouth of the Rio Grande, taking chief command, but the tardiness of government in furnishing materials for attacking Vera Cruz delayed the movement several weeks. For this expedition General Scott assigned 12,000 men, and appointed the island of Lobos, about 125 miles northwest of Vera Cruz, as the place of rendezvous. When the troops were gathered, they sailed for Vera Cruz, and landed near that city March 9, 1847. Upon an island opposite was a very strong fortress, called the Castle of San Juan de Ulloa, which the Mexicans regarded as invulnerable. This and Vera Cruz were considered the "key of the country." This fortress and the city were completely invested by the Americans four days after the landing, and on March 22 General Scott and Commodore Conner were ready for the bombardment. Then Scott summoned the city and fortress to surrender. The demand was refused, when shells from seven mortars on land (soon increased to nine) were hurled upon the city. The engineering works for the siege had been skilfully prepared by GEN. JOSEPH G. TOTTEN (*q. v.*). The entire siege continued fifteen days, during which time the Americans fired 3,000 ten-inch shells, 200 howitzer-shells, 1,000 Paixham shot, and 2,500

VERA CRUZ DURING THE MEXICAN WAR.

round-shot, the whole weight of metal being about 500,000 pounds. The shells did terrible damage within the city, and many women and children became victims. On the morning of March 26 the commander of the post made overtures for surrender, and on the 29th that event took place, when about 5,000 Mexicans marched out to a plain a mile from the city, where they laid down their arms, gave up their flags, and retired to the interior on parole. The city and fortress of San Juan de Ulloa, with 500 pieces of artillery and a large quantity of munitions of war passed into the possession of the Americans. The latter, during the whole siege, had lost only eighty men killed and wounded; the Mexicans lost 1,000 killed and many more wounded. Scott tried to induce the governor to send the women and children and foreign residents out of the city before he began the bombardment, but that magistrate refused. See MEXICO, WAR WITH.

Vergennes, CHARLES GRAVIER, COUNT DE, statesman; born in Dijon, France, Dec. 28, 1717. In 1740 he was sent to Lisbon in a diplomatic capacity; in 1750 was minister at the court of the elector of Treves; and from 1755 to 1768 was French ambassador to Turkey. When Louis XVI. succeeded to the throne (1774), Vergennes was minister in Sweden. The King recalled him, and made him minister for foreign affairs in July. He was the minister with whom the American diplomatists had intercourse during the entire Revolutionary War.

When he was informed of the proclamation of King George and that it had been determined by the British ministry to burn the town of Boston and desolate the country, he exclaimed, prophetically: "The cabinet of the King of England may wish to make North America a desert, but there all its power will be stranded; if ever the English troops quit the borders of the sea, it will be easy to prevent their return." Vergennes could not persuade himself that the British ministry could refuse conciliation on the reasonable terms offered by the Americans. The King's proclamation changed his mind. "That proclamation against the Americans," he said, "changes my views altogether; it cuts off



CHARLES GRAVIER VERGENNES.

the possibility of retreat; America or the ministry themselves must succumb." He died in Versailles, Feb. 13, 1787.

Vermont (name derived from the French *vert mont*, "Green Mountain"), a State in the New England division of the North American Union; bounded on the n. by Quebec, e. by New Hampshire, s. by Massachusetts, and w. by New York; area, 9,564 square miles, of which 440 are water surface; extreme breadth, e. to w., 90 miles; extreme length, n. to s., 155 miles; number of counties, 14; capital, Montpelier; popular name, "the Green Mountain State"; State flower, the red clover; State motto, "Freedom and Unity"; admitted into the Union as the fourteenth State March 4, 1791; population (1910), 355,956.

General Statistics.—Vermont is noted the world over for its production of many grades of marble and its large output of granite and slate. Rutland is credited with being the largest marble centre in the world and with yielding a grade equal to the famous Carrara of Italy, and Proctor claims to have the largest single quarry in the world. In the State's record year in mineral productions (1907) the entire output had a value of $9,464,857, of which marbles represented $4,596,724; granite, $2,693,889; and slate, $1,477,259. Although the greater part of the State is mountainous, its agricultural interests are increasingly important. There are nearly 32,600 farms, comprising 1,633,000 improved acres, and representing a value in lands, buildings, and implements of $122,489,000, an increase in the value of lands and buildings of thirty-five per cent. in ten years. Ordinary farm crops have an annual value of over $22,000,000, hay and forage ($16,335,000), corn, oats, and potatoes leading; and its domestic animals, poultry, and bees, with a value of $22,642,866, have increased about thirty per cent. in ten years.

Manufacturing industries are represented by 1,958 factory-system establishments, employing $73,470,000 capital and 33,789 wage-earners; paying $20,075,000 for salaries and wages and $34,823,000 for materials; and yielding products valued at $68,310,000. These figures show an increase in ten years in capital from

OLD-FASHIONED SUGAR CAMP, VERMONT.

$42,499,640; wage-earners from 28,179; salaries and wages from $13,037,062; cost of materials from $26,384,812; and value of products from $51,515,228. The principal products are butter, cheese, and condensed milk, lumber and timber, stonework (including building-stones, monuments, and tombstones), paper and wood pulp, flour and grist, foundry and machine-shop work, and various textiles. General business interests are served by fifty-one national banks having $5,186,290 capital and resources of $31,754,622; twenty-nine loan and trust companies, with $1,450,000 capital and $29,659,120 resources; and twenty-one mutual savings-banks, with resources of $46,628,820.

STATE SEAL OF VERMONT.

Religious interests are promoted by 909 organizations having 891 church edifices, 147,223 communicants or members, 61,277 Sunday-school scholars, and church property valued at $5,939,492, the strongest denominations numerically being the Roman Catholic, Congregational, Methodist Episcopal, Baptist, Protestant Episcopal, and Universalist. The Roman Catholic and Protestant Episcopal churches have each a bishop at Burlington. The school age is five to eighteen; enrolment in the public schools, 66,174; average daily attendance, 57,483; value of public school property, $4,106,467; total revenue, $1,494,385; total expenditure, $1,512,649; estimated number of pupils in private and parochial schools, 6,000. The institutions for higher education are the University of Vermont (with medical department) and State Agricultural College at Burlington; Middleburg College (non-sectarian), Norwich University (non-sectarian), Northfield; State normal schools at Castleton, Johnson, and Randolph Center; Arts and Crafts Training School, Woodstock; and seventy public high schools. The State also maintains an industrial training school at Vergennes.

Government.—The first constitution was adopted by a convention at Windsor, which also named the State and appointed a provisional council of safety in 1777. In the following year the legislature divided the State into two counties. Cumberland (all e. of the Green Mountains) and Bennington (all w.) and various towns on both sides of the Connecticut River, including eight in Vermont, proposed to unite in forming a State, but in 1779 the legislature declared the union with the towns e. of the Connecticut River null and void. In 1781 Massachusetts consented to the independence of Vermont, and at their own request the towns e. of the Connecticut were annexed thereto. The Congress resolved in 1781 that an indispensable preliminary to the admission of Vermont as a State should be the relinquishing of territory e. of the Connecticut and w. of the present New York State line, and in accordance therewith the legislature in 1782 dissolved its eastern and western unions. In 1787 the legislature adopted and declared another constitution; in 1791 the federal Constitution was adopted; in 1796 the legislature adopted a constitution framed in 1793; the constitution was amended in 1871; and a revision of the State laws was completed in 1880. Vermont ratified the Fourteenth Amendment to the federal Constitution in 1866 and the Fifteenth in 1869. A local option bill was passed in 1846, and the Australian-ballot system was adopted in 1890.

The executive authority is vested in a governor (annual salary $2,500), lieutenant-governor, secretary of state, treasurer, auditor, attorney-general, superintendent of education, and commissioners of agriculture, insurance, and railroads—official terms, two years. The legislature consists of a senate of thirty members and a house of representatives of 246

members—terms of each, two years; salary of each, $4 per diem; sessions, biennial; limit, none. The chief judicial authority is a supreme court comprising a chief-justice and four associate justices. In 1910 the State debt was $714,871; cash to the credit of the State, $591,329; assessed valuations, $188,493,546. There has been no direct State tax levied since 1902, but the State in the capacity of agent collects a tax of $1.30 per $1,000 for schools and highways and distributes it among the various cities and towns.

STATE GOVERNORS.

	Assumes office.
Thomas Chittenden	1777
Moses Robinson	1789
Thomas Chittenden	1790
Paul Brigham	1797
Isaac Tichenor	1797
Israel Smith	1807
Isaac Tichenor	1808
Jonas Galusha	1809
Martin Chittenden	1813
Jonas Galusha	1815
Richard Skinner	1820
C. P. Van Ness	1823
Ezra Butler	1826
Samuel C. Crafts	1828
William A. Palmer	1831
S. H. Jenison	1835
Charles Paine	1841
John Mattocks	1843
William Slade	1844
Horace Eaton	1846
Carlos Coolidge	1848
Charles K. Williams	1850
Erastus Fairbanks	1852
John S. Robinson	1853
Stephen Royce	1854
Ryland Fletcher	1856
Hiland Hall	1858
Erastus Fairbanks	1860
Frederick Holbrook	1861
J. Gregory Smith	1863
Paul Dillingham	1865
John B. Page	1867
Peter T. Washburn	1869
G. W. Hendee	1870
John W. Stewart	1870
Julius Converse	1872
Asahel Peck	1874
Horace Fairbanks	1876
Redfield Proctor	1878
Roswell Farnham	1880
John L. Barstow	1882
Samuel E. Pingree	1884
Ebenezer J. Ormsbee	1886
William P. Dillingham	1888
Carroll S. Page	1890
Levi K. Fuller	1892
Urban A. Woodbury	1894
Josiah Grout	1896
Edward C. Smith	1898
William W. Stickney	1900
John G. McCullough	1902
Charles J. Bell	1904
Fletcher D. Proctor	1906
George H. Prouty	1908
John A. Mead	1910

Vermont ranked twelfth in population among the States and Territories under the census of 1790; thirteenth in 1800; fifteenth in 1810; sixteenth in 1820; seventeenth in 1830; twenty-first in 1840; twenty-third in 1850; twenty-eighth in 1860; thirtieth in 1870; thirty-second in 1880; thirty-sixth in 1890; fortieth in 1900; and forty-third in 1910.

UNITED STATES SENATORS.

Name.	No. of Con.	Term.
Stephen R. Bradley	2d to 4th	1791 to 1795
Moses Robinson	2d " 4th	1791 " 1796
Isaac Tichenor	4th " 5th	1796 " 1797
Elijah Paine	4th " 7th	1795 " 1801
Nathaniel Chipman	5th " 8th	1797 " 1803
Stephen R. Bradley	7th " 13th	1801 " 1813
Israel Smith	8th " 10th	1803 " 1807
Jonathan Robinson	10th " 14th	1807 " 1815
Dudley Chace	13th " 15th	1813 " 1817
Isaac Tichenor	14th " 17th	1815 " 1821
James Fisk	15th	1817 " 1818
William A. Palmer	15th to 19th	1818 " 1825
Horatio Seymour	17th " 23d	1821 " 1833
Dudley Chace	19th " 22d	1825 " 1831
Samuel Prentiss	22d " 27th	1831 " 1842
Benjamin Swift	23d " 26th	1833 " 1839
Samuel S. Phelps	26th " 32d	1839 " 1851
Samuel C. Crafts	27th	1842 " 1843
William Upham	28th to 33d	1843 " 1853
Samuel S. Phelps	33d	1853 " 1854
Solomon Foot	32d to 39th	1851 " 1866
Lawrence Brainerd	33d	1854 " 1855
Jacob Collamer	34th to 39th	1855 " 1865
George F. Edmunds	39th " 52d	1866 " 1891
Luke P. Poland	39th	1865
Justin S. Morrill	40th to 56th	1867 to 1898
Jonathan Ross	56th	1899 " 1900
Redfield Proctor	52d to 60th	1891 " 1908
William P. Dillingham	56th " ——	1900 " ——
Carroll S. Page	60th " ——	1908 " ——

In the apportionment of representation in Congress Vermont was given two members under the censuses of 1790, 1800, 1890, and 1910; four in 1800 and 1840; six in 1810; five in 1820 and 1830; and three in 1850, 1860, and 1870.

History: Early Period.—The State was first settled by white people in 1724 by the erection of Fort Dummer near the (present) site of Brattleboro, then supposed to be in Massachusetts. The portion of country between the Connecticut River and Lake Champlain was known as "New Hampshire Grants" (see NEW HAMPSHIRE). At the middle of January (15–17), 1777, the people of the "Grants" assembled in convention at Windsor and declared the "Grants" an independent State, with the title of Vermont. The

territory was yet claimed by New York. At the same time the convention adopted a petition to the Continental Congress, setting forth reasons for their position of independence, and asking for admission into the confederacy of free and independent States and seats for delegates in the Congress. This petition, presented to Congress April 8, 1777, was dismissed by resolutions on June 30, in one of which it was declared "that the independent government attempted to be established by the people styling themselves inhabitants of the New Hampshire Grants can derive no countenance or justification from the act of Congress declaring the United Colonies to be independent of the crown of Great Britain, nor from any other act or resolution of Congress." The Vermonters had adopted a constitution modelled on that of Pennsylvania, and on July 8 a convention at Windsor adopted it.

TREES TAPPED FOR MAPLE SUGAR, VERMONT.

Struggle for Independence.— The famous body of young men known as the "Green Mountain Boys" was organized in 1771 by ETHAN ALLEN (*q. v.*), primarily to oppose the movements of "the Yorkers." In 1772 Jehiel Hawley and James Breakenridge were appointed by deputies of Bennington at Manchester to petition the King to confirm their grants from New Hampshire. In October and November of the following year the Green Mountain Boys visited Durham (Clarendon) twice, armed and with threats, to compel the inhabitants to acknowledge the New Hampshire title. Governor Tryon, of New York, by proclamation of March 9, 1774, commanded Ethan Allen, Seth Warner, Remember Baker, Robert Cochran, Peleg Sunderland, Silvanus Brown, James Breakenridge, and John Smith to surrender within thirty days, offering £150 for the capture of Allen and £50 each for the capture of the others. A convention at Manchester resolved in April following that whoever took a commission of the peace from New York would be deemed an enemy to his country and the common cause. Benjamin Hough, an inhabitant of New Hampshire Grants, favoring New York, procured a commission as justice of the peace. He was found guilty of violating the resolution

of April, 1774, publicly whipped, and sent to New York, Jan. 30, 1775. People, to resist the holding of court under royal authority at Westminster appointed for March 14, 1775, assembled at the courthouse March 13. A guard left during the night was fired upon by Sheriff Patterson and his posse a little before midnight, wounding ten, two mortally, and seven were taken prisoners. In the morning court was opened, but the judge and officers were imprisoned at Northhampton by the mob.

Revolutionary Period.—Ethan Allen, with eighty-three men, captured Fort Ticonderoga May 10, 1775, and on Sept. 25 following he and thirty-eight men, captured in an attack on Montreal, were sent in irons to England. In July, 1777, British troops under Generals Fraser and Riedesel dispersed the rear guard of St. Clair's army under Colonels Francis and Warner at Hubbardton; and the Council of Vermont appointed "commissioners of sequestration" to seize the property of "all persons in the State who had repaired to the enemy." On Aug. 16 of the same year occurred what is known as the battle of Bennington (see BENNINGTON, BATTLE NEAR). Col. Ethan Allen, prisoner of the British since 1775, exchanged, was welcomed to Bennington by a salute of fourteen guns, "one for young Vermont," May 31, 1778. On Oct. 16, 1780, the town of Royalton was attacked by 300 Indians from Canada, and many buildings were burned. Col. Ira Allen, commissioner to exchange prisoners with the British, reached Ile aux Noix, a few miles north of the Canadian line, about May 8, 1781, and spent seventeen days in conference; a union of Vermont with the British was proposed, under instructions from General Haldimand, by which Allen effected an exchange of prisoners and cessation of hostilities on the border.

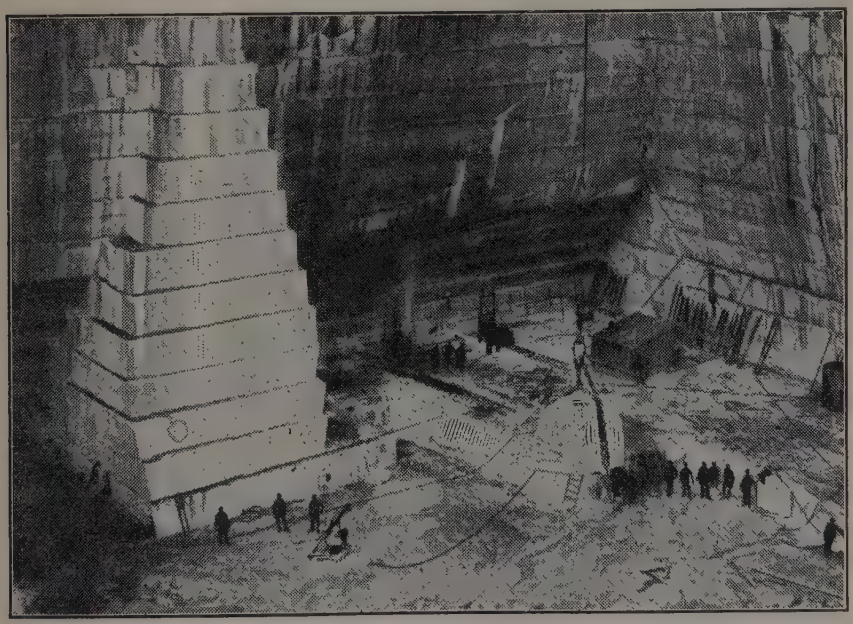
Independence and Sovereignty.—Under this frame of excited government Vermont successfully maintained its independence and sovereignty until 1791. In July, 1780, the mysterious movements of Governor Chittenden, Ethan and Ira Allen, and other leaders in Vermont, excited grave suspicions of their loyalty, because of their secret correspondence with the British. In June the Congress had appointed a committee to visit Vermont, and had declared their disapprobation of the proceedings of the people in setting up an independent government before a decision of Congress should be made concerning their right to separate. The governor of New York suspected a combination against his State, and intimated, in a letter to a member of Congress, that New York might be compelled to use all her resources for the defence of that State. He also called the attention of Washington to the subject; and he especially condemned the conduct of Ethan Allen, whose motives he suspected. General Schuyler, who had been ordered by Washington to arrest Allen, wrote to Governor Clinton at the close of October, saying: "The conduct of some of the people to the eastward is alarmingly mysterious. A flag, under pretext of settling a cartel with Vermont, has been on the Grants. Allen has disbanded his militia, and the enemy, in number upwards of 1,600, are rapidly advancing towards us. . . . Entreat General Washington for more Continental troops; and let me beg of your excellency to hasten up here." There was general alarm concerning the perplexing movements of the Vermonters, which, in the light of subsequent history, was only a piece of coquetry for their benefit. The shrewd diplomats of Vermont were working for a twofold object—namely, to keep back the British from a threatened invasion by a show of friendly feeling, and to so alarm the Congress as to induce them to admit Vermont into the Union.

In Statehood.—After the ratification of the Articles of Confederation, in 1781, Congress offered to admit it, with a considerable curtailment of its boundaries. The people refused to come in on such terms, and for ten years they remained outside of the Union. Finally, on Jan. 10, 1791, a convention at Bennington adopted the national Constitution, and Vermont, having agreed to pay to the State of New York $30,000 for territory claimed by that State, was, by resolution of Congress passed on Feb. 18, admitted into the Union on March 4, to have two representatives in Congress until an apportionment of representatives should be made.

In the War of 1812–15 the governor re-

fused to call out the militia, and forbade troops to leave the State; but Vermont volunteers took an active part in the battle at Plattsburg in 1814. During the troubles in Canada (1837–38), sympathizing Vermonters to the number of fully 600 went over to the help of the insurgents, but were soon disarmed. During the Civil War Vermont furnished to the National army 35,256 troops.

Later Events.—A personal-liberty bill, "to secure freedom to all persons within the State," was adopted by the legislature in 1856. On Oct. 19, 1864, a band of Confederate refugees, who had settled in Canada, under Lieut. Bennett H. Young, made a dash into St. Albans, robbed the banks of over $200,000, and escaped to Canada. The most exciting episode in the recent history of the State was the invasion of Canada by some 500 Fenians, marshalled and armed at Fairfield, in May, 1870 (see FENIAN BROTHERHOOD).



A MARBLE QUARRY.

Vernon, EDWARD, naval officer; born in Westminster, England, Nov. 12, 1684; served under Admiral Hopson in the expedition which destroyed the French and Spanish fleets off Vigo on Oct. 12, 1702, and was at the naval battle between the French and English off Malaga in 1704. In 1708 he attained the rank of rear-admiral, and remained in active service until 1727, when he was elected to Parliament. He loudly condemned the acts of the ministry, and, in the course of remarks, while arraigning them for their weakness, declared that Porto Bello could be taken with six ships. For this remark he was extolled throughout the kingdom. There was a loud clamor against the ministry, and to silence it they sent Admiral Vernon to the West Indies. With six men-of-war he captured Porto Bello on the day after the attack (Nov. 23, 1739), the English losing only seven men. For this exploit a commemorative medal was struck, bearing an effigy of the admiral on one disk, and a town and six ships on the other.

With twenty-nine ships-of-the-line and eighty small vessels, bearing 15,000 sailors and 12,000 land troops, Vernon sailed from Jamaica (January, 1741) to attack Carthagena, but was repulsed with heavy loss. Twenty thousand men perished, chiefly by a malignant fever. Lawrence Washington, a brother of Washington,

bearing a captain's commission, joined Vernon's expedition in 1741, and because of his admiration for the admiral he named his estate Mount Vernon. Admiral Vernon died in England, Oct. 29, 1757.

Verona, CONGRESS OF, 1822. The representatives of the great powers of Europe proposed intervention in the revolt of the Spanish-American colonies. This led to the annunciation of the MONROE DOCTRINE (*q. v.*) in 1823.

Verplanck, GULIAN CROMMELIN, author; born in New York City, Aug. 7, 1786; graduated at Columbia College in 1801; admitted to the bar and practised in New York City; member of the State legislature in 1820; member of Congress in 1825–33; of the State Senate in 1838–41. He published *Addresses on Subjects of American History, Art, and Literature,* etc. He died in New York City, March 18, 1870.

VERRAZZANO, GIOVANNI DA

Verrazzano, GIOVANNI DA, navigator; born near Florence, Italy, in 1470; went to France as a navigator as early as 1508. He became a bold corsair, and a terror to the merchant-ships of Spain and Portugal, seizing many vessels. In 1522 he captured the treasure-ship sent by Cortez to Charles V. with the spoils of Mexico, valued at $1,500,000. Verrazzano, according to a letter from the navigator to Francis I., dated July 8, 1524, and published in the collection of voyages by Ramusio in 1556, sailed from France late

GIOVANNI DA VERRAZZANO.

in 1523 in the ship *Dauphine,* under a commission from the King, and touched America first, at the mouth of the Cape Fear River, in March, 1524. In that letter he gives an account of his explorations of the North American coast from lat. 34° to 50°, at the Gulf of St. Lawrence. He describes the people at various points, and his topographical descriptions seem to indicate that he entered the bays of Delaware, New York, and Narraganset, and the harbor of Boston. In the Strozzi library at Florence is preserved a cosmographic description of the coasts and all the countries which he visited, from which it is evident he was in search of a northwest passage to India. The region of America which he visited he called New France. The authenticity of his letter to Francis I. has been questioned by American writers, who suppose that it was forged by one of his countrymen anxious to secure for Italy the glory due to Cabot for the discovery of the North American Continent. It is possible that Verrazzano the corsair was not Verrazzano the navigator. Some writers say that the latter sailed again for America in 1525, and was never heard of afterwards; while it is known that Verrazzano the corsair was executed in Puerto del Pico, Spain, in 1527.

Verrazzano's Voyage, 1524.—Giovanni da Verrazzano, who commanded the first French expedition to America sent out under royal auspices, was, like Columbus, who sailed in the service of Spain, an Italian. He was born in Florence, and was about ten years old when Columbus discovered America. It has been stated, but on doubtful authority, that he commanded one of the ships in Aubert's expedition to America in 1508. In 1521 he appears in history as a French corsair, preying upon the commerce between Spain and America; and it was probably

in this occupation that he gained the notice and favor of Francis I. Late in 1523 he started on his voyage across the Atlantic, in the *Dauphine*, his object being, as he tells us himself in the cosmographical appendix to his letter, to reach Cathay (China) by a westward route. Of this voyage the famous letter here published is the record. It was in March, 1524, that he discovered the American coast, probably not far from the site of Wilmington, in North Carolina. It will be interesting for the student to follow him in his course northward, remembering that he was the first European who explored this part of the coast. "A newe land," he exclaims in his letter, "never before seen of any man, either auncient or moderne." Among the places which he describes, New York Harbor, Block Island (which he named Louisa, in honor of the King's mother), Newport, and other places have been identified. He continued along the Maine coast and as far as Nova Scotia and Newfoundland, which fishermen from Brittany had found twenty years before (the name of Cape Breton is a trace of them), thence returning to France. He reached Dieppe early in July, and it is from Dieppe, July 8, 1524, that his letter to the King is dated. It is the earliest description known to exist of the shores of the United States.

There are two copies of Verrazzano's letter, both of them, however, Italian translations, the original letter not being in existence. One was printed by Ramusio in 1556, and this was translated into English by Hakluyt for his *Divers Voyages*, which appeared in 1582. The other was found many years later in the Strozzi Library at Florence, and was first published in 1841 by the New York Historical Society, with a translation by Dr. J. G. Cogswell. This is the translation given here. The cosmographical appendix contained in the second version, and considered by Dr. Asher and other antiquarians a document of great importance, was not contained in the copy printed by Ramusio.

Verrazzano's voyage and letter have been the occasion of much controversy. There are those who believe that he never came to America at all, but that the letter was ingeniously prepared in France, with the connivance of the King, as the basis of a claim to American territory. Mr. Henry C. Murphy has been the ablest objector to the genuineness of Verrazzano's letter and voyage. See his book on *The Voyage of Verrazzano*, which affected Mr. Bancroft so deeply that he has left out all mention of Verrazzano in the revised edition of his *History of the United States*. The entire controversy is reviewed most ably by Justin Winsor, in the fourth volume of the new *Narrative and Critical History of America*, and he shows the utter insufficiency of Murphy's objections. This review should be carefully read by the student. See also De Costa's *Verrazzano the Explorer*, containing an exhaustive bibliography of the subject, Prof. Geo. W. Greene's essay on Verrazzano in the *North American Review* for October, 1837, etc.

The fourth volume of the *Narrative and Critical History of America* bears the subtitle of *French Explorations and Settlements in North America*, to which subject almost the entire volume is devoted. It is an inexhaustible mine of information, to which the more careful student should constantly go in connection with almost all of the lectures on *America and France*. There is a chapter devoted to Jacques Cartier, the next important Frenchman in America, and very much about Champlain. Verrazzano, Cartier, and Champlain are also all most interestingly treated by Parkman, in his *Pioneers of France in the New World*. Champlain's own writings, which have been carefully edited by Rev. Edmund F. Slafter, should be consulted.

CAPTAIN JOHN DE VERRAZZANO TO HIS MOST SERENE MAJESTY, THE KING OF FRANCE, WRITES:

Since the tempests which we encountered on the northern coasts, I have not written to your most Serene and Christian Majesty concerning the four ships sent out by your orders on the ocean to discover new lands, because I thought you must have been before apprized of all that had happened to us—that we had been compelled by the impetuous violence of the winds to put into Britany in distress with only the two ships *Normandy* and *Dolphin;* and that after having repaired

these ships, we made a cruise in them, well armed, along the coast of Spain, as your Majesty must have heard, and also of our new plan of continuing our begun voyage with the *Dolphin* alone; from this voyage being now returned, I proceed to give your Majesty an account of our discoveries.

On the 17th of last January we set sail from a desolate rock near the island of Madeira, belonging to his most Serene Majesty, the King of Portugal, with fifty men, having provisions sufficient for eight months, arms and other warlike munition and naval stores. Sailing westward with a light and pleasant easterly breeze, in twenty-five days we ran eight hundred leagues. On the 24th of February we encountered as violent a hurricane as any ship ever weathered, from which we escaped unhurt by the divine assistance and goodness, to the praise of the glorious and fortunate name of our good ship, that had been able to support the violent tossing of the waves. Pursuing our voyage towards the West, a little northwardly, in twenty-four days more, having run four hundred leagues, we reached a new country, which had never before been seen by any one, either in ancient or modern times. At first it appeared to be very low, but on approaching it to within a quarter of a league from the shore we perceived, by the great fires near the coast, that it was inhabited. We perceived that it stretched to the south, and coasted along in that direction in search of some port, in which we might come to anchor, and examine into the nature of the country, but for fifty leagues we could find none in which we could lie securely. Seeing the coast still stretch to the south, we resolved to change our course and stand to the northward, and as we still had the same difficulty, we drew in with the land and sent a boat on shore. Many people who were seen coming to the sea-side fled at our approach, but occasionally stopping, they looked back upon us with astonishment, and some were at length induced, by various friendly signs, to come to us. These showed the greatest delight on beholding us, wondering at our dress, countenances, and complexion. They then showed us by signs where we could more conveniently secure our boat, and offered us some of their provisions. That your Majesty may know all that we learned, while on shore, of their manners and customs of life, I will relate what we saw as briefly as possible. They go entirely naked, except that about the loins they wear skins of small animals like martens fastened by a girdle of plaited grass, to which they tie, all round the body, the tails of other animals hanging down to the knees; all other parts of the body and the head are naked. Some wear garlands similar to birds' feathers.

The complexion of these people is black, not much different from that of the Ethiopians; their hair is black and thick, and not very long; it is worn tied back upon the head in the form of a little tail. In person they are of good proportions, of middle stature, a little above our own, broad across the breast, strong in the arms, and well formed in the legs and other parts of the body; the only exception to their good looks is that they have broad faces, but not all, however, as we saw many that had sharp ones, with large black eyes and a fixed expression. They are not very strong in body, but acute in mind, active and swift of foot, as far as we could judge by observation. In these last two particulars they resemble the people of the east, especially those the most remote. We could not learn a great many particulars of their usages on account of our short stay among them, and the distance of our ship from the shore.

We found not far from this people another whose mode of life we judged to be similar. The whole shore is covered with fine sand, about fifteen feet thick, rising in the form of little hills about fifty paces broad. Ascending farther, we found several arms of the sea which make in through inlets, washing the shores on both sides as the coast runs. An outstretched country appears at a little distance rising somwhat above the sandy shore in beautiful fields and broad plains, covered with immense forests of trees, more or less dense, too various in colours, and too delightful and charming in appearance to be described. I do not believe that they are like the Hercynian forest or the rough wilds of Scythia, and the northern regions full of vines and common trees, but adorned with palms, laurels, cypresses, and other varieties unknown in Europe, that

send forth the sweetest fragrance to a great distance, but which we could not examine more closely for the reasons before given, and not on account of any difficulty in traversing the woods, which, on the contrary, are easily penetrated.

As the "East" stretches around this country, I think it cannot be devoid of the same medicinal and aromatic drugs, and various riches of gold and the like, as is denoted by the colour of the ground. It abounds also in animals, as deer, stags, hares, and many other similar, and with a great variety of birds for every kind of pleasant and delightful sport. It is plentifully supplied with lakes and ponds of running water, and being in the latitude of 34, the air is salubrious, pure and temperate, and free from the extremes of both heat and cold. There are no violent winds in these regions, the most prevalent are the north-west and west. In summer, the season in which we were there, the sky is clear, with but little rain: if fogs and mists are at any time driven in by the south wind, they are instantaneously dissipated, and at once it becomes serene and bright again. The sea is calm, not boisterous, and its waves are gentle. Although the whole coast is low and without harbours, it is not dangerous for navigation, being free from rocks and bold, so that within four or five fathoms from the shore there is twenty-four feet of water at all times of tide, and this depth constantly increases in a uniform proportion. The holding ground is so good that no ship can part her cable, however violent the wind, as we proved by experience; for while riding at anchor on the coast, we were overtaken by a gale in the beginning of March, when the winds are high, as is usual in all countries, we found our anchor broken before it started from its hold or moved at all.

We set sail from this place, continuing to coast along the shore, which we found stretching out to the west (east?); the inhabitants being numerous, we saw everywhere a multitude of fires. While at anchor on this coast, there being no harbour to enter, we sent the boat on shore with twenty-five men to obtain water, but it was not possible to land without endangering the boat, on account of the immense high surf thrown up by the sea, as it was an open roadstead. Many of the natives came to the beach, indicating by various friendly signs that we might trust ourselves on shore. One of their noble deeds of friendship deserves to be made known to your Majesty. A young sailor was attempting to swim ashore through the surf to carry them some knick-knacks, as little bells, looking-glasses, and other like trifles; when he came near three or four of them he tossed the things to them, and turned about to get back to the boat, but he was thrown over by the waves, and so dashed by them that he lay as it were dead upon the beach. When these people saw him in this situation, they ran and took him up by the head, legs and arms, and carried him to a distance from the surf; the young man, finding himself borne off in this way, uttered very loud shrieks in fear and dismay, while they answered as they could in their language, showing him that he had no cause for fear. Afterwards they laid him down at the foot of a little hill, when they took off his shirt and trowsers, and examined him, expressing the greatest astonishment at the whiteness of his skin. Our sailors in the boat, seeing a great fire made up, and their companion placed very near it, full of fear, as is usual in all cases of novelty, imagined that the natives were about to roast him for food. But as soon as he had recovered his strength after a short stay with them, showing by signs that he wished to return aboard, they hugged him with great affection, and accompanied him to the shore; then leaving him, that he might feel more secure, they withdrew to a little hill, from which they watched him until he was safe in the boat. This young man remarked that these people were black like the others, that they had shining skins, middle stature, and sharper faces, and very delicate bodies and limbs, and that they were inferior in strength, but quick in their minds; this is all that he observed of them.

Departing hence, and always following the shore, which stretched to the north, we came, in the space of fifty leagues, to another land, which appeared very beautiful and full of the largest forests. We approached it, and going ashore with twenty men, we went back from the coast about two leagues, and found that the

people had fled and hid themselves in the woods for fear. By searching around we discovered in the grass a very old woman and a young girl of about eighteen or twenty, who had concealed themselves for the same reason; the old woman carried two infants on her shoulders, and behind her neck a little boy of eight years of age; when we came up to them they began to shriek and make signs to the men who had fled to the woods. We gave them a part of our provisions, which they accepted with delight, but the girl would not touch any; everything we offered to her being thrown down in great anger. We took the little boy from the old woman to carry with us to France, and would have taken the girl also, who was very beautiful and very tall, but it was impossible because of the loud shrieks she uttered as we attempted to lead her away; having to pass some woods, and being far from the ship, we determined to leave her and take the boy only. We found them fairer than the others, and wearing a covering made of certain plants, which hung down from the branches of the trees, tying them together with threads of wild hemp; their heads are without covering and of the same shape as the others. Their food is a kind of pulse which there abounds, different in colour and size from ours, and of a very delicate flavour. Besides they take birds and fish for food, using snares and bows made of hard wood, with reeds for arrows, in the ends of which they put the bones of fish and other animals. The animals in these regions are wilder than in Europe from being continually molested by the hunters. We saw many of their boats made of one tree twenty feet long and four feet broad, without the aid of stone or iron or other kind of metal. In the whole country for the space of two hundred leagues, which we visited, we saw no stone of any sort. To hollow out their boats they burn out as much of a log as is requisite, and also from the prow and stern to make them float well on the sea. The land, in situation, fertility and beauty, is like the other, abounding also in forests filled with various kinds of trees, but not of such fragrance, as it is more northern and colder.

We saw in this country many vines growing naturally, which entwine about the trees, and run up upon them as they do in the plains of Lombardy. These vines would doubtless produce excellent wine if they were properly cultivated and attended to, as we have often seen the grapes which they produce very sweet and pleasant, and not unlike our own. They must be held in estimation by them, as they carefully remove the shrubbery from around them, wherever they grow, to allow the fruit to ripen better. We found also wild roses, violets, lilies, and many sorts of plants and fragrant flowers different from our own. We cannot describe their habitations, as they are in the interior of the country, but from various indications we conclude they must be formed of trees and shrubs. We saw also many grounds for conjecturing that they often sleep in the open air, without any covering but the sky. Of their other usages we know nothing; we believe, however, that all the people we were among live in the same way.

After having remained here three days, riding at anchor on the coast, as we could find no harbour we determined to depart, and coast along the shore to the north-east, keeping sail on the vessel only by day, and coming to anchor by night. After proceeding one hundred leagues, we found a very pleasant situation among some steep hills, through which a very large river, deep at its mouth, forced its way to the sea; from the sea to the estuary of the river, any ship heavily laden might pass, with the help of the tide, which rises eight feet. But as we were riding at anchor in a good berth, we would not venture up in our vessel, without a knowledge of the mouth; therefore we took the boat, and entering the river, we found the country on its banks well peopled, the inhabitants not differing much from the others, being dressed out with the feathers of birds of various colours. They came towards us with evident delight, raising loud shouts of admiration, and showing us where we could most securely land with our boat. We passed up this river, about half a league, when we found it formed a most beautiful lake three leagues in circuit, upon which they were rowing thirty or more of their small boats, from one shore to the

other, filled with multitudes who came to see us. All of a sudden, as is wont to happen to navigators, a violent contrary wind blew in from the sea, and forced us to return to our ship, greatly regretting to leave this region which seemed so commodious and delightful, and which we supposed must also contain great riches, as the hills showed many indications of minerals. Weighing anchor, we sailed fifty leagues toward the east, as the coast stretched in that direction, and always in sight of it; at length we discovered an island of a triangular form, about ten leagues from the mainland, in size about equal to the island of Rhodes, having many hills covered with trees, and well peopled, judging from the great number of fires which we saw all around its shores; we gave it the name of your Majesty's illustrious mother.

We did not land there, as the weather was unfavourable, but proceeded to another place, fifteen leagues distant from the island, where we found a very excellent harbour. Before entering it, we saw about twenty small boats full of people, who came about our ship, uttering many cries of astonishment, but they would not approach nearer than within fifty paces; stopping, they looked at the structure of our ship, our persons and dress; afterwards they all raised a loud shout together, signifying that they were pleased. By imitating their signs, we inspired them in some measure with confidence, so that they came near enough for us to toss to them some little bells and glasses, and many toys, which they took and looked at, laughing, and then came on board without fear. Among them were two kings more beautiful in form and stature than can possibly be described; one was about forty years old, the other about twenty-four, and they were dressed in the following manner: The oldest had a deer's skin around his body, artificially wrought in damask figures, his head was without covering, his hair was tied back in various knots; around his neck he wore a large chain ornamented with many stones of different colours. The young man was similar in his general appearance. This is the finest-looking tribe, and the handsomest in their costumes, that we have found in our voyage. They exceed us in size, and they are of a very fair complexion (?); some of them incline more to a white (bronze?), and others to a tawny colour; their faces are sharp, their hair long and black, upon the adorning of which they bestow great pains; their eyes are black and sharp, their expression mild and pleasant, greatly resembling the antique. I say nothing to your Majesty of the other parts of the body, which are all in good proportion, and such as belong to well-formed men. Their women are of the same form and beauty, very graceful, of fine countenances and pleasing appearance in manners and modesty; they wear no clothing except a deer skin, ornamented like those worn by the men; some wear very rich lynx skins upon their arms and various ornaments upon their heads, composed of braids of hair, which also hang down upon their breasts on each side. Others wear different ornaments, such as the women of Egypt and Syria use. The older and the married people, both men and women, wear many ornaments in their ears, hanging down in the oriental manner. We saw upon them several pieces of wrought copper, which is more esteemed by them than gold, as this is not valued on account of its colour, but is considered by them as the most ordinary of the metals—yellow being the colour especially disliked by them; azure and red are those in highest estimation with them. Of those things which we gave them, they prized most highly the bells, azure crystals, and other toys to hang in their ears and about their necks; they do not value or care to have silk or gold stuffs, or other kinds of cloth, nor implements of steel or iron. When we showed them our arms, they expressed no admiration, and only asked how they were made; the same was the case of the looking-glasses, which they returned to us, smiling, as soon as they had looked at them. They are very generous, giving away whatever they have. We formed a great friendship with them, and one day we entered into the port with our ship, having before rode at the distance of a league from the shore, as the weather was adverse. They came off to the ship with a number of their little boats, with their faces painted in divers colours, showing us real signs of joy,

bringing us of their provisions, and signifying to us where we could best ride in safety with our ship, and keeping with us until we had cast anchor. We remained among them fifteen days, to provide ourselves with many things of which we were in want, during which time they came every day to see our ship, bringing with them their wives, of whom they were very careful; for, although they came on board themselves, and remained a long while, they made their wives stay in the boats, nor could we ever get them on board by any entreaties or any presents we could make them. One of the two kings often came with his queen and many attendants, to see us for his amusement; but he always stopped at the distance of about two hundred paces, and sent a boat to inform us of his intended visit, saying they would come and see our ship—this was done for safety, and as soon as they had an answer from us they came off, and remained awhile to look around; but on hearing the annoying cries of the sailors, the king sent the queen, with her attendants, in a very light boat, to wait, near an island a quarter of a league distant from us, while he remained a long time on board, talking with us by signs, and expressing his fanciful notions about every thing in the ship, and asking the use of all. After imitating our modes of salutation, and tasting our food, he courteously took leave of us. Sometimes, when our men stayed two or three days on a small island, near the ship, for their various necessities, as sailors are wont to do, he came with seven or eight of his attendants to inquire about our movements, often asking us if we intended to remain there long, and offering us everything at his command, and then he would shoot with his bow, and run up and down with his people, making great sport for us. We often went five or six leagues into the interior, and found the country as pleasant as is possible to conceive, adapted to cultivation of every kind, whether of corn, wine or oil; there are open plains twenty-five or thirty leagues in extent, entirely free from trees or other hindrances, and of so great fertility that whatever is sown there will yield an excellent crop. On entering the woods we observed that they might all be traversed by an army ever so numerous; the trees of which they were composed were oaks, cypresses, and others, unknown in Europe. We found, also, apples, plums, filberts, and many other fruits, but all of a different kind from ours. The animals, which are in great numbers, as stags, deer, lynxes, and many other species, are taken by snares, and by bows, the latter being their chief implement; their arrows are wrought with great beauty, and for the heads of them they use emery, jasper, hard marble, and other sharp stones, in the place of iron. They also use the same kind of sharp stones in cutting down trees, and with them they construct their boats of single logs, hollowed out with admirable skill, and sufficiently commodious to contain ten or twelve persons; their oars are short, and broad at the end, and are managed in rowing by force of the arms alone, with perfect security, and as nimbly as they choose. We saw their dwellings, which are of a circular form, of about ten or twelve paces in circumference, made of logs split in halves, without any regularity of architecture, and covered with roofs of straw, nicely put on, which protect them from wind and rain. There is no doubt that they would build stately edifices if they had workmen as skilful as ours, for the whole sea-coast abounds in shining stones, crystals, and alabaster, and for the same reason it has ports and retreats for animals. They change their habitations from place to place as circumstances of situation and season may require; this is easily done, as they have only to take with them their mats, and they have other houses prepared at once. The father and the whole family dwell together in one house in great numbers; in some we saw twenty-five or thirty persons. Their food is pulse, as with the other tribes, which is here better than elsewhere, and more carefully cultivated; in the time of sowing they are governed by the moon, the sprouting of grain, and many other ancient usages. They live by hunting and fishing, and they are long-lived. If they fall sick, they cure themselves without medicine, by the heat of the fire, and their death at last comes from extreme old age. We judge them to be very affectionate and charitable towards their relatives—making loud lamentations in their

adversity, and in their misery calling to mind all their good fortune. At their departure out of life, their relations mutually join in weeping, mingled with singing, for a long while. This is all that we could learn of them. This region is situated in the parallel of Rome, being 41° 40′ of north latitude, but much colder from accidental circumstances, and not by nature, as I shall hereafter explain to your Majesty, and confine myself at present to the description of its local situation. It looks towards the south, on which side the harbour is half a league broad; afterwards, upon entering it, the extent between the coast and north is twelve leagues, and then enlarging itself it forms a very large bay, twenty leagues in circumference, in which are five small islands, of great fertility and beauty, covered with large and lofty trees. Among these islands any fleet, however large, might ride safely, without fear of tempests or other dangers. Turning towards the south, at the entrance to the harbour, on both sides, there are very pleasant hills, and many streams of clear water, which flow down to the sea. In the midst of the entrance, there is a rock of free-stone, formed by nature, and suitable for the construction of any kind of machine or bulwark for the defence of the harbour.*

Having supplied ourselves with every thing necessary, on the fifth of May we departed from the port, and sailed one hundred and fifty leagues, keeping so close to the coast as never to lose it from our sight; the nature of the country appeared much the same as before, but the mountains were a little higher, and all in appearance rich in minerals. We did not stop to land, as the weather was very favourable for pursuing our voyage, and the country presented no variety. The shore stretched to the east, and fifty leagues beyond more to the north, where we found a more elevated country, full of very thick woods of fir-trees, cypresses and the like, indicative of a cold climate. The people were entirely different from the others we had seen, whom we had found kind and gentle, but these were so rude and barbarous that we were unable by any signs we could make, to hold communication with them. They clothe themselves in the skins of bears, lynxes, seals, and other animals. Their food, as far as we could judge by several visits to their dwellings, is obtained by hunting and fishing, and certain fruits, which are a sort of root of spontaneous growth. They have no pulse, and we saw no signs of cultivation; the land appears sterile and unfit for growing of fruit or grain of any kind. If we wished at any time to traffick with them, they came to the sea shore and stood upon the rocks, from which they lowered down by a cord to our boats beneath whatever they had to barter, continually crying out to us, not to come nearer, and instantly demanding from us that which was to be given in exchange; they took from us only knives, fish hooks and sharpened steel. No regard was paid to our courtesies; when we had nothing left to exchange with them, the men at our departure made the most brutal signs of disdain and contempt possible. Against their will we penetrated two or three leagues into the interior with twenty-five men; when we came to the shore, they shot at us with their arrows, raising the most horrible cries, and afterwards fleeing to the woods. In this region we found nothing extraordinary except vast forests and some metalliferous hills, as we infer from seeing that many of the people wore copper ear-rings. Departing from thence, we kept along the coast, steering north-east, and found the country more pleasant and open, free from woods, and distant in the interior we saw lofty mountains, but none which extended to the shore. Within fifty leagues we discovered thirty-two islands, all near the main land, small and of pleasant appearance, but high and so disposed as to afford excellent harbours and channels, as we see in the Adriatic gulph, near Illyria and Dalmatia. We had no intercourse with

* The above description applies to Narraganset Bay and the harbor of Newport in Rhode Island, although mistaken by Dr. Miller, in his discourse before this society, as published in the first volume of the former series of *Collections*, for the bay and harbor of New York. The latter are briefly described in a preceding paragraph of this translation with sufficient clearness to admit of their being easily recognized. The island "of a triangular form, resembling the island of Rhodes," which Verrazzano mentions as 50 leagues to the east of New York, is doubtless Block Island.—Ed.

the people, but we judge that they were similar in nature and usages to those we were last among. After sailing between east and north the distance of one hundred and fifty leagues more, and finding our provisions and naval stores nearly exhausted, we took in wood and water and determined to return to France, having discovered 502—that is, 700 (sic) leagues of unknown lands.

As to the religious faith of all these tribes, not understanding their language, we could not discover either by sign or gestures any thing certain. It seemed to us that they had no religion nor laws, nor any knowledge of a First Cause or Mover, that they worshipped neither the heavens, stars, sun, moon, nor other planets; nor could we learn if they were given to any kind of idolatry, or offered any sacrifices or supplications, or if they have temples or houses of prayer in their villages;—our conclusion was, that they have no religious belief whatever, but live in this respect entirely free. All which proceeds from ignorance, as they are very easy to be persuaded, and imitated us with earnestness and fervour in all which they saw us do as Christians in our acts of worship.

It remains for me to lay before your Majesty a cosmographical exposition of our voyage. Taking our departure, as I before observed, from the above mentioned desert rocks, which lie on the extreme verge of the west, as known to the ancients, in the meridian of the Fortunate Islands, and in the latitude of 32 degrees north from the equator, and steering a westward course, we had run, when we first made land, a distance of 1,200 leagues or 4,800 miles, reckoning, according to nautical usage, four miles to a league. This distance calculated geometrically, upon the usual ratio of the diameter to the circumference of the circle, gives 92 degrees; for if we take 114 degrees as the chord of an arc of a great circle, we have by the same ratio 95 deg. as the chord of an arc on the parallel of 34 degrees, being that on which we first made land, and 300 degrees as the circumference of the whole circle, passing through this plane. Allowing then, as actual observations show, that 62½ terrestrial miles correspond to a celestial degree, we find the whole circumference of 300 deg., as just given, to be 18,759 miles, which, divided by 360, makes the length of a degree of longitude in the parallel of 34 degrees to be 52 miles, and that is the true measure. Upon this basis, 1,200 leagues, or 4,800 miles meridional distance on the parallel of 34, give 92 degrees, and so many therefore have we sailed farther to the west than was known to the ancients. During our voyage we had no lunar eclipses or like celestial phenomenas, we therefore determined our progress from the difference of longitude, which we ascertained by various instruments, by taking the sun's altitude from day to day, and by calculating geometrically the distance run by the ship from one horizon to another; all these observations, as also the ebb and flow of the sea in all places, were noted in a little book, which may prove serviceable to navigators; they are communicated to your Majesty in the hope of promoting science.

My intention in this voyage was to reach Cathay, on the extreme coast of Asia, expecting, however, to find in the newly discovered land some such an obstacle, as they have proved to be, yet I did not doubt that I should penetrate by some passage to the eastern ocean. It was the opinion of the ancients, that our oriental Indian ocean is one and without any interposing land; Aristotle supports it by arguments founded on various probabilities; but it is contrary to that of the moderns and shown to be erroneous by experience; the country which has been discovered, and which was unknown to the ancients, is another world compared with that before known, being manifestly larger than our Europe, together with Africa and perhaps Asia, if we rightly estimate its extent, as shall now be briefly explained to your Majesty. The Spaniards have sailed south beyond the equator on a meridian 20 degrees west of the Fortunate Islands to the latitude of 54, and there still found land; turning about they steered northward on the same meridian and along the coast to the eighth degree of latitude near the equator, and thence along the coast more to the west and northwest, to the latitude of 21°, without finding a termina-

tion to the continent; they estimated the distance run as 89 degrees, which, added to the 20 first run west of the Canaries, make 109 degrees and so far west; they sailed from the meridian of these islands, but this may vary somewhat from truth; we did not make this voyage, and therefore cannot speak from experience; we calculated it geometrically from the observations furnished by many navigators, who have made the voyage and affirm the distance to be 1,600 leagues, due allowance being made for the deviations of the ship from a straight course, by reason of contrary winds. I hope that we shall now obtain certain information on these points, by new voyages to be made on the same coasts. But to return to ourselves; in the voyage which we have made by order of your Majesty, in addition to the 92 degrees we run towards the west from our point of departure, before we reached land in the latitude of 34, we have to count 300 leagues which we ran north-east-wardly, and 400 nearly east along the coast before we reached the 50th parallel of north latitude, the point where we turned our course from the shore towards home. Beyond this point the Portuguese had already sailed as far north as the Arctic circle, without coming to the termination of the land. Thus adding the degrees of south latitude explored, which are 54, to those of the north, which are 66, the sum is 120, and therefore more than are embraced in the latitude of Africa and Europe, for the north point of Norway, which is the extremity of Europe, is in 71 north, and the Cape of Good Hope, which is the southern extremity of Africa, is in 35 south, and their sum is only 106, and if the breath of this newly discovered country corresponds to its extent of sea coast, it doubtless exceeds Asia in size. In this way we find that the land forms a much larger portion of our globe than the ancients supposed, who maintained, contrary to mathematical reasoning, that it was less than the water, whereas actual experience proves the reverse, so that we judge in respect to extent of surface the land covers as much space as the water; and I hope more clearly and more satisfactorily to point out and explain to your Majesty the great extent of that new land, or new world, of which I have been speaking. The continent of Asia and Africa, we know for certain, is joined to Europe at the north in Norway and Russia, which disproves the idea of the ancients that all this part had been navigated from the Cimbric Chersonesus, eastward as far as the Caspian Sea. They also maintained that the whole continent was surrounded by two seas situate to the east and west of it, which seas in fact do not surround either of the two continents, for as we have seen above, the land of the southern hemisphere at the latitude of 54 extends eastwardly an unknown distance, and that of the northern passing the 66th parallel turns to the east, and has no termination as high as the 70th. In a short time, I hope, we shall have more certain knowledge of these things, by the aid of your Majesty, whom I pray Almighty God to prosper in lasting glory, that we may see the most important results of this our cosmography in the fulfilment of the holy words of the Gospel.

On board the ship Dolphin, in the port of Dieppe in Normandy, 8th July, 1524.

JOHN DE VERRAZZANO.

Versailles, TREATY OF. See TREATIES, 1783 (*Anglo-American*).

Vesey, DENMARK, conspirator; born of negro parents about 1767; was brought as a slave to Charleston, S. C., when fourteen years old. For twenty years he was a sailor, acquiring a proficiency in several languages. In 1800 he became free and settled as a carpenter in Charleston, S. C., where he was very popular among the negroes, many of whom he quietly convinced that they had a right to fight for their liberty. Together with Peter Poyas, another negro, he perfected a scheme for an insurrection of the slaves in and around Charleston. Several thousand negroes had quietly organized military companies and were furnished with daggers and pikes. On a fixed date they were to arrive in Charleston, as was the custom of many on Sundays, and upon a signal were to act in concert and seize the forts and the city. This plot was divulged by a negro, who had been urged to join it, on May 25,

1822. The principal conspirators were immediately apprehended, but so successfully pretended to know nothing of the affair that they were freed. On June 16 another attempt was made to put the plot into execution, but it was soon suppressed and the leaders arrested. They were tried on June 19. Five were first hanged, and later twenty-nine others met the same fate, but all excepting one maintained complete secrecy to the end. On July 2, the day on which Vesey was executed, another attempt at insurrection was made, but the State troops held the slaves in check. So determined, however, were they to strike a blow for liberty that it was found necessary for the federal government to send soldiers to Charleston to maintain order.

Vespucius, AMERICUS. See AMERICUS VESPUCIUS.

Vest, GEORGE GRAHAM, Senator; born in Frankfort, Ky., Dec. 6, 1830; graduated at Centre College in 1848; studied law and removed to Missouri, where he began practice. He was a Presidential elector on the Democratic ticket in 1860; member of the State legislature in 1860–61; member of the Confederate Congress in 1863–66; removed to Kansas City, Mo., in 1877; and has been a United States Senator since 1879. In 1900 he was chairman of the committee on public health and national quarantine, and a member of the committees on commerce, finance, public buildings, transportation and sale of meat products, and industrial expositions. He died in Sweet Springs, Mo., Aug. 9, 1904.

Vetch, SAMUEL, colonial governor; born in Edinburgh, Scotland, Dec. 9, 1668; educated at Utrecht College, Holland; was a member of the council to the "colony of Caledonia" at Darien, Isthmus of Panama, in 1698, but soon after left the colony and went to Albany, N. Y., where he engaged in trade with the Indians. He was a commissioner from Massachusetts to Quebec in 1705 to negotiate a treaty between New England and Canada, but in this he failed. In 1708 he went to England at the instance of the New York colony, and represented to Queen Anne the desirability of seizing Canada. The Queen was favorably impressed with the suggestion, and through Vetch ordered the governors of the several colonies to do all they could to aid the project. The enterprise, however, was abandoned, as the squadron promised in England did not appear. Later Vetch persuaded the citizens of Boston to equip an expedition against Port Royal, Nova Scotia. This force, under the command of Vetch and Sir Francis Nicholson, captured Port Royal, Oct. 2, 1710, and the former remained there several years as governor. In 1719 he returned to England. He died in London, April 30, 1732.

Veterans, SONS OF. See SONS OF VETERANS, UNITED STATES ARMY.

Veto. The President of the United States may treat a bill passed by Congress in any of five ways: (1) Sign it; (2) sign it with a protest; (3) if presented more than ten days before the close of the session, and he takes no action, at the expiration of ten days it becomes a law without his signature; (4) if presented within ten days of the close of the session, and he fails to return it, it does not become a law; this is termed a "pocket veto"; (5) veto it, giving his reasons to Congress.

BILLS VETOED BY THE PRESIDENTS.

President.	No.	Date.	Subject of Bill.	Remarks.
Washington, 2	1	Apr. 5, 1792	Apportionment of Representation.	
	2	Feb. 28, 1797	Reduction of the Army.	
	3	" 21, 1811	Incorporating Church at Alexandria.	
	4	" 28, "	Relief.	
Madison, 6	5	Apr. 3, 1812	Trials in District Courts.	
	6	Nov. 16, "	Naturalization	Pocketed.
	7	Jan. 30, 1815	Incorporation of National Bank.	
Monroe, 1	8	Mch. 3, 1817	Internal Improvements.	
	9	May 4, 1822	Internal Improvements, Cumberland Road.	
	10	" 27, 1830	Internal Improvements, Maysville Road, Ky.	
	11	" 31, "	Internal Improvements, Turnpike Stock.	
	12	Dec. 6, "	Internal Improvements, Light-houses and Beacons.	Pocketed.
	13	" 6, "	Internal Improvements, Canal Stock	Pocketed.
Jackson, 12	14	July 10, 1832	Extension of Charter of United States Bank.	
	15	Dec. 6, "	Interest of State Claims	Pocketed.
	16	" 6, "	River and Harbor	Pocketed.
	17	" 4, 1833	Proceeds of Land Sales	Pocketed.

BILLS VETOED BY THE PRESIDENTS—*Continued.*

President.	No.	Date.	Subject of Bill.	Remarks.
Jackson, 12	18	Dec. 1, 1834	Internal Improvements, Wabash River	Pocketed.
	19	Mch. 3, 1835	Compromise Claims against the Two Sicilies.	
	20	June 9, 1836	Regulations for Congressional Sessions.	
	21	Mch. 3, 1837	Funds Receivable from United States Revenue	Pocketed
Tyler 9	22	Aug. 16, 1841	Incorporating Fiscal Bank.	
	23	Sept. 9, "	Incorporating Fiscal Corporation.	
	24	June 29, 1842	First Whig Tariff.	
	25	Aug. 9, "	Second Whig Tariff.	
	26	Dec. 14, "	Proceeds of Public Land Sales	Pocketed.
	27	" 14, "	Testimony in Contested Elections	Pocketed.
	28	" 18, "	Payment of Cherokee Certificates	Pocketed.
	29	June 11, 1844	River and Harbor.	
	30	Feb. 20, 1845	Revenue-cutters and Steamers for Defence	Passed over the veto, *the first.*
Polk, 3	31	Aug. 3, 1846	River and Harbor.	
	32	" 8, "	French Spoliation Claims.	
	33	Dec. 15, 1847	Internal Improvements	Pocketed.
Pierce, 9	34	May 3, 1854	Land Grant for Indigent Insane.	
	35	Aug. 4, "	Internal Improvements.	
	36	Feb. 17, 1855	French Spoliation Claims.	
	37	Mch. 3, "	Subsidy for Ocean Mails.	
	38	May 19, 1856	Internal Improvements, Mississippi	Passed over veto.
	39	" 19, "	Internal Improvements, St. Clair Flats, Mich	Passed over veto.
	40	" 22, "	Internal Improvements, St. Mary's River, Mich	Passed over veto.
	41	Aug. 11, "	Internal Improvements, Des Moines River, Mich	Passed over veto.
	42	" 14, "	Internal Improvements, Patapsco River, Md	Passed over veto
Buchanan, 7	43	Jan. 7, 1859	Overland Mails	Pocketed.
	44	Feb. 24, "	Land Grants for Agricultural Colleges.	
	45	" 1, 1860	Internal Improvements, St. Clair Flats, Mich	Pocketed.
	46	" 6, "	Internal Improvements, Mississippi River	Pocketed.
	47	Apr. 17, "	Relief of A. Edwards & Co.	
	48	June 22, "	Homestead.	
	49	Jan. 25, 1861	Relief of Hockaday & Legget.	
	50	June 23, 1862	Bank Notes in District of Columbia.	
Lincoln, 3	51	July 2, "	Medical Offices in the Army.	
	52	Jan. 5, 1865	Correcting Clerical Errors	Pocketed.
Johnson, 21	53	Feb. 19, 1866	Freedmen's Bureau.	
	54	Mch. 27, "	Civil Rights	Passed over veto
	55	May 15, "	Admission of Colorado.	
	56	June 15, "	Public Lands (Montana Iron Company).	
	57	July 15, "	Continuation of Freedmen's Bureau	Passed over veto.
	58	" 28, "	Survey District of Montana.	
	59	Jan. 5, 1867	Suffrage in District of Columbia	Passed over veto.
	60	" 29, "	Admission of Colorado.	
	61	" 29, "	Admission of Nebraska	Passed over veto.
	62	Mch. 2, "	Tenure of Office	Passed over veto.
	63	" 2, "	Reconstruction	Passed over veto.
	64	" 23, "	Supplemental Reconstruction	Passed over veto.
	65	July 19, "	Supplemental Reconstruction	Passed over veto.
	66	" 19, "	Joint Resolution Reconstruction	Passed over veto.
	67	Mch. 25, 1868	Amending Judiciary	Passed over veto.
	68	June 20, "	Admission of Arkansas (reconstructed)	Passed over veto.
	69	" 25, "	Admission of Southern States	Passed over veto.
	70	July 20, "	Exclusion of Electoral Votes of Unreconstructed States	Passed over veto.
	71	" 25, "	Discontinuance of Freedmen's Bureau	Passed over veto.
	72	Feb. 13, 1869	Trustees of Colored Schools in District of Columbia.	
	73	" 22, "	Tariff on Copper	Passed over veto.
Grant, 43.	74	Jan. 11, 1870	Relief, Private	Passed one House over veto.
	75	July 14, 1870	Southern Union Troops.	
	76	Jan. 4, 1871	Relief.	
	77	Feb. 7, "	Relief.	
	78	Apr. 1, 1872	Relief	Passed one House over veto.
	79	" 1, "	Relief.	
	80	" 10, "	Relief.	
	81	" 15, "	Pension, Private.	
	82	" 22, "	Pension.	
	83	May 14, "	Pension, Mary Ann Montgomery	Passed over veto
	84	June 1, "	Pension.	
	85	" 7, "	Relief.	
	86	Jan. 6, 1873	Relief.	
	87	" 22, "	New Trial in Court of Claims.	
	88	" 29, "	Relief of East Tennessee University.	
	89	Feb. 8, "	Relief.	
	90	" 8, "	Relief.	

BILLS VETOED BY THE PRESIDENTS—*Continued.*

President.	No.	Date.	Subject of Bill.	Remarks.
	91	Apr. 10, 1874	Relief.	
	92	" 22, "	Inflation of Currency.	
	93	May 12, "	Relief.	
	94	Jan. 30, 1875	Relief.	
	95	Feb. 12, "	Pension.	
	96	" 3, 1876	Custody of Indian Trust Funds.	
	97	Mch. 27, "	Relief.	
	98	" 31, "	Relief of G. B. Tyler and E. H. Luckett	Passed over veto
	99	Apr. 18, "	Reduction of President's Salary.	
	100	May 26, "	Recording in the District of Columbia.	
	101	June 9, "	Relief.	
	102	" 30, "	Internal Improvements.	
	103	July 11, "	Relief of Nelson Tiffany	Passed over veto.
	104	" 13, "	Pension.	
Grant, 43	105	" 20, "	Post-office Statutes	
	106	Aug. 4, "	Relief.	
	107	" 15, "	Paving Pennsylvania Avenue.	
	108	" 15, "	Sale of Indian Lands	Passed over veto.
	109	" 15, "	Relief.	
	110	Jan. 15, 1877	Homestead Entries.	
	111	" 23, "	District of Columbia's Police	Passed in the House over veto.
	112	" 26, "	Diplomatic Congratulations.	
	113	" 26, "	Relief.	
	114	Feb. 14, "	Relief.	
	115	" 14, "	Advertising of Executive Department.	
	116	" 28, "	Relief.	
	117	" 28, 1878	Standard Silver Dollar	Passed over veto.
	118	Mch. 6, "	Special Term of Courts in Mississippi.	
	119	" 1, 1879	Restriction of Chinese Immigration.	
	120	Apr. 29, "	Army Appropriation.	
	121	May 12, "	Interference at Elections.	
	122	" 29, "	Civil Appropriations.	
Hayes, 12	123	June 23, "	Payment of Marshals.	
	124	" 27, "	Relief.	
	125	.....	Payment of Marshals.	
	126	May 4, 1880	Payment of Marshals.	
	127	June 15, "	Payment of Marshals.	
	128	Mch. 3, 1881	Refunding the National Debt.	
	129	Apr. 4, 1882	Chinese Immigration.	
	130	July 1, "	Carriage of Passengers at Sea.	
	131	Aug. 1, "	River and Harbor Bill	Passed over veto.
Arthur, 4	132	July 2, 1884	Relief of Fitz-John Porter	Passed over the veto in the House, 168–78; vote in the Senate, 27–27.
	133	Mch. 10, 1886	Relief.	
	134	" 11, "	Settlers' Titles to Des Moines Public Lands	Passed over the veto in the Senate.
	135	Apr. 26, "	Bodies for Dissection.	
	136	" 30, "	Omaha a Port of Entry.	
	137, 138	May 8, "	Pensions.	
	139	" 17, "	Springfield a Port of Entry.	
	140 to 156	" " to June 19, "	Pensions, Private.	
	157	" 19, "	Public Building at Sioux City, Ia	Passed over the veto in the Senate.
Cleveland, 301	158	" 19, "	Public Building at Zanesville, O.	
	159 to 226	" " to July 6, "	Pensions and Reliefs, Private.	
	227	" 6, "	Public Building at Duluth, Minn.	
	228 to 231	" 6, "	Pensions and Reliefs, Private.	
	232	" 7, "	Right of Way to Railroad in North Montana.	
	233	" 9, "	Pension, Private.	
	234	" 9, "	Public Building in Dayton, O	Passed over veto.
	235	" 10, "	Public Building in Asheville, N. C.	
	236	" 30, "	Bridge across Lake Champlain.	
	237	" 30, "	Public Building at Springfield, Mass.	

BILLS VETOED BY THE PRESIDENTS—*Continued.*

President.	No.	Date.	Subject of Bill.	Remarks
	238 to 261	July 31, 1886 to Feb. 11, 1887	Pensions and Relief Private.	
	262	" 16, "	Texas Seed Bill.	
	263 to 272	" 19, " to " 24, "	Pensions.	
	273	" 25, "	Public Building at Lynn, Mass.	
	274 275	" 26, "	Pensions, Private.	
	276 277	" 26, "	Public Building at Portsmouth, O., and Lafayette, Ind.	
	278 to 292	Apr. 4, 1888 to May 3, "	Pensions and Reliefs.	
	293	" 7, "	Sale of Indian Land.	
	294	" 9, "	Public Building at Allentown, Pa.	
	295 to 297	" 9, " to " 18, "	Pensions.	
	298	" 18, "	Use of Castle Island, Boston Harbor.	
	299 to 307	" 18, " to " 26, "	Pensions.	
	308	" 28, "	Public Building at Youngstown, O.	
	309 to 311	" 28, "	Pensions.	
	312	" 29, "	Public Building at Columbus, Ga.	
	313	June 5, "	Public Building at Bar Harbor, Me.	
Cleveland, 301	314	" 5, "	Government Land Purchase, Council Bluffs, Ia.	
	315 to 344	" 5, " to July 26, "	Pensions and Reliefs, Private.	
	345	" 26, "	Right of Way for Railroad through Indian Lands.	
	346	Aug. 3, "	Relief.	
	347	" 7, "	Land Grant to Tacoma, Wash.	
	348 to 361	" 9, " to " 10, "	Pensions, Private.	
	362	" 14, "	Additional Copies of United States Map for 1886.	
	363 to 373	" 14, " to " 27, "	Pensions and Reliefs.	
	374	" 27, "	Public Building, Sioux City, Ia.	
	375 to 385	" 27, " to Sept. 13, "	Pensions and Reliefs, Private.	
	386	" 24, "	Land Grant to Kansas.	
	387	" 24, "	Sale of Military Reservation in Kansas.	
	388 to 424	Oct. 10, " to Feb. 14, 1889	Pensions and Reliefs, Private.	
	425	" 21, "	Quieting Settlers' Titles on the Des Moines River.	
	426 to 432	" 23, " to " 26, "	Pensions and Reliefs, Private.	
	433	Mch. 2, "	Refunding the Direct Tax.....	Passed over the veto in the Senate.
	434	Apr. 26, 1890	City of Ogden Increased Indebtedness.	
	435	" 29, "	Public Building, Dallas, Tex.	
	436	June 4, "	Public Building, Hudson, N. Y.	
	437	" 12, "	Public Building, Tuscaloosa, Ala.	
	438	" 17, "	To change boundary of Uncompahgre Reservation.	
	439	" 20, "	Bonds issued by Maricopa county, Arizona, for certain Railroad.	
	440	July 9, "	Indian Payment.	
Harrison, 19	441	Sept. 30, "	Relief of Capt. Charles B. Stivers.	
	442	Oct. 1, "	Relief of the Portland Company.	
	443	" 1, "	Relief of Charles B. Chouteau.	
	444	" 1, "	Pool Selling in the District of Columbia.	
	445	Dec. 24, "	Public Building, Bar Harbor, Me.	
	446	Jan. 26, 1891	Bonds, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma Territory.	
	447	Feb. 26, "	Act to Establish the Record and Pension of the War Department, etc.	
	448	Mch. 2, "	Relief of George W. Lawrence.	
	449	July 19, 1892	An Act to Establish Circuit Court of Appeal, etc.	

BILLS VETOED BY THE PRESIDENTS—*Continued.*

President.	No.	Date.	Subject of Bill.	Remarks.
	450	July 29, 1892	Relief of William McGarrahan.	Senate fails to pass it over the veto, Jan. 17 1893.
Harrison, 19	451	Aug. 3, "	An Act to Provide for Bringing Suit against the United States.	
	452	Feb. 27, 1893	An Act to prescribe the number of District Attorneys and Marshals in the Judicial Districts of the State of Alabama.	Passed over the veto, Mch. 2, 1893.
	453	Jan. 17, 1894	An Act for Relief.	
	454	" 20, "	An Act to Authorize the New York and New Jersey Bridge Companies to Construct a Bridge Across the Hudson.	
	455	Mch. 29, "	An Act Directing the Coinage of the Silver Bullion in the Treasury, etc.	
	456	Aug. 7, "	An Act for Relief.	
	457	" 11, "	An Act for Relief.	
	458	Jan. 4, 1895	An Act Authorizing entry of Certain Lands and Granting Right of Way for Pipe Lines.	
	459	Feb. 1, "	An Act Granting Right of Way through the San Carlos Indian Reservation, Arizona, to a Railroad Company.	
	460	" 5, "	An Act for Relief.	
	461	" 12, "	An Act for Relief.	
	462	" 19, "	An Act to Remove Charge of Desertion.	
	463	" 20, "	An Act for Relief.	
	464	" 23, "	An Act Granting Right of Way for a Railroad through Indian Reservations in Indian, Oklahoma, and New Mexico Territories.	
	465	" 23, "	An Act to Incorporate the Society of American Florists.	
	466	" 23, "	An Act Granting Pension.	
	467	" 27, "	An Act Granting Pension.	
	468	" 27, "	An Act Granting Relief.	
	469	" 28, "	An Act Granting Right of Way for a Railroad through Indian Territory.	
	470	" 28, "	An Act Granting Right of Way for a Railroad through Indian and Oklahoma Territories.	
	471	" 28, "	An Act Leasing Lands for Educational Purposes in Arizona.	
Cleveland, 2d Term, 44	472	Apr. 21, "	An Act Granting Relief.	
	473	" 21, "	An Act Granting Pension.	
	474	" 25, "	An Act Granting Pension.	
	475	May 19, "	An Act Granting Pension.	
	476	" 20, "	An Act Granting Pension	
	477	" 21, "	An Act Granting Pension.	
	478	" 23, "	An Act to Amend Part of the *Revised Statutes of the United States.*	
	479	" 26, "	An Act Granting Relief.	
	480	" 29, "	An Act Making Appropriation for Certain Public Works, Rivers and Harbors.	
	481	" 29, "	An Act Granting Pension.	
	482	" 29, "	An Act for Payment of a Claim.	
	483	" 30, "	An Act Granting Pension.	
	484	" 30, "	An Act Granting Pension.	
	485	June 1, "	An Act Granting Pension.	
	486	" 6, "	An Act Making Appropriation for Supplying Deficiencies, etc.	
	487	" 10, "	An Act to Lease Fort Omaha Military Reservation to the State of Nebraska.	
	488	Jan. 14, 1897	An Act Concerning the Eastern Judicial District of Texas.	
	489	Feb. 22, "	An Act Granting Pension.	
	490	" 22, "	An Act Granting Pension.	
	491	" 22, "	An Act Granting Pension.	
	492	Mch. 1, "	An Act to Restore Pension.	
	493	" 1, "	An Act Granting Pension.	
	494	" 2, "	An Act to Amend Immigration Laws	
	495	Dec. 30, 1898	An Act Granting Pension.	Pocket veto.
	496	" 31, "	An Act to Increase Pension.	Pocket veto.

Veuillot, DESIRE, explorer; born in Cahors, France, in 1653; was inspector-general of the establishment of the West Indian Company in the Antilles, Louisiana, and Alabama, during which time he explored the Mississippi River as far as the Missouri. In 1665 he was forced to renounce the land grants he had obtained in upper Mississippi. He wrote *A Description of the Louisiana Coast, with an Ac-*

count of a Journey down the Mississippi; Historical Notice of the Mississippi Company and of the Settlement founded in Louisiana. He died in London, England, in 1732.

Vice-Admiral. During the colonial period the governors of the colonies were usually appointed to this office, so as to be head of the colonial admiralty courts. This office was first created in the United States in 1864, but ceased to exist on the death of Vice-Admiral Rowan in 1890. See ADMIRAL.

Vice-Presidents of the United States. They preside in the Senate, and on the death, resignation, or disability of the President, succeed him. Five Vice-Presidents have in this way become Presidents: John Tyler, succeeding William Henry Harrison, who died April 4, 1841; Millard Fillmore, succeeding Zachary Taylor, who died July 9, 1850; Andrew Johnson, succeeding Abraham Lincoln, who died April 15, 1865; Chester A. Arthur, succeeding James A. Garfield, who died Oct. 19, 1881; and Theodore Roosevelt, succeeding William McKinley, who died Sept. 14, 1901.

The Constitution of the United States provides, Article I., Section 3, Paragraph 4, "The Vice-President of the United States shall be president of the Senate, but shall have no vote unless they be equally divided," and Paragraph 5, "The Senate shall choose their officers, and also a president *pro tempore*, in the absence of the Vice-President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States." It is customary for the Vice-President to retire from the Senate for a brief period so that the Senate may elect a president *pro tempore*. In 1881 the Vice-President refused to retire and consequently there was no president *pro tempore*.

By the Twelfth Amendment to the Constitution no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice-President.

The following is a full list of the Vice-Presidents:

VICE-PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

	Name.	Birthplace.	Year.	Residence.	Qualified.	Place of Death.	Year.	Age at Death.
1	John Adams	Quincy, Mass.	1735	Mass.	1789	Quincy, Mass.	1826	90
2	Thomas Jefferson	Shadwell, Va.	1743	Va.	1797	Monticello, Va.	1826	83
3	Aaron Burr	Newark, N. J.	1756	N.Y.	1801	Staten Island, N.Y.	1836	80
4	George Clinton	Ulster Co., N. Y.	1739	N.Y.	1805	Washington, D. C.	1812	73
5	Elbridge Gerry	Marblehead, Mass.	1744	Mass.	1813	Washington, D. C.	1814	70
6	D. D. Tompkins	Scarsdale, N. Y.	1774	N.Y.	1817	Staten Island, N.Y.	1825	51
7	J. C. Calhoun	Abbeville, S. C.	1782	S.C.	1825	Washington, D. C.	1850	68
8	Mar. Van Buren	Kinderhook, N. Y.	1782	N.Y.	1833	Kinderhook, N.Y.	1862	79
9	R. M. Johnson	Louisville, Ky.	1780	Ky.	1837	Frankfort, Ky.	1850	70
10	John Tyler	Greenway, Va.	1790	Va.	1841	Richmond, Va.	1862	72
11	G. M. Dallas	Philadelphia, Pa.	1792	Pa.	1845	Philadelphia, Pa.	1864	72
12	Millard Fillmore	Summerhill, N. Y.	1800	N.Y.	1849	Buffalo, N. Y.	1874	74
13	Wm. R. King	Sampson Co., N. C.	1786	Ala.	1853	Dallas Co., Ala.	1853	67
14	J.C.Breckinridge	Lexington, Ky.	1821	Ky.	1857	Lexington, Ky.	1875	54
15	Hann. Hamlin	Paris, Me.	1809	Me.	1861	Bangor, Me.	1891	81
16	Andrew Johnson	Raleigh, N. C.	1808	Tenn.	1865	Carter Co., Tenn.	1875	66
17	Schuyler Colfax.	New York City, N. Y.	1823	Ind.	1869	Mankato, Minn.	1885	62
18	Henry Wilson	Farmington, N. H.	1812	Mass.	1873	Washington, D. C.	1875	63
19	W. A. Wheeler	Malone, N. Y.	1819	N.Y.	1877	Malone, N. Y.	1887	68
20	Ches. A. Arthur.	Fairfield, Vt.	1830	N.Y.	1881	New York City, N. Y.	1886	56
21	T. A. Hendricks.	Muskingum Co., O.	1819	Ind.	1885	Indianapolis, Ind.	1885	66
22	Levi P. Morton.	Shoreham, Vt.	1824	N.Y.	1889	.....	....	..
23	A. E. Stevenson.	Christian Co., Ky.	1835	Ill.	1893	.....	....	..
24	Garret A. Hobart	Long Branch, N. J.	1844	N. J.	1897	Paterson, N. J.	1899	55
25	Theo. Roosevelt.	New York City, N. Y.	1858	N.Y.	1901	.....	....	..
26	C. W. Fairbanks	Unionville Center, O.	1852	Ind.	1905	.....	....	..
27	J. S. Sherman	Utica, N. Y.	1855	N.Y.	1909	Utica, N. Y.	1912	59
28	T. R. Marshall.	N. Manchester, Ind.	1854	Ind.	1913	.....	....	..

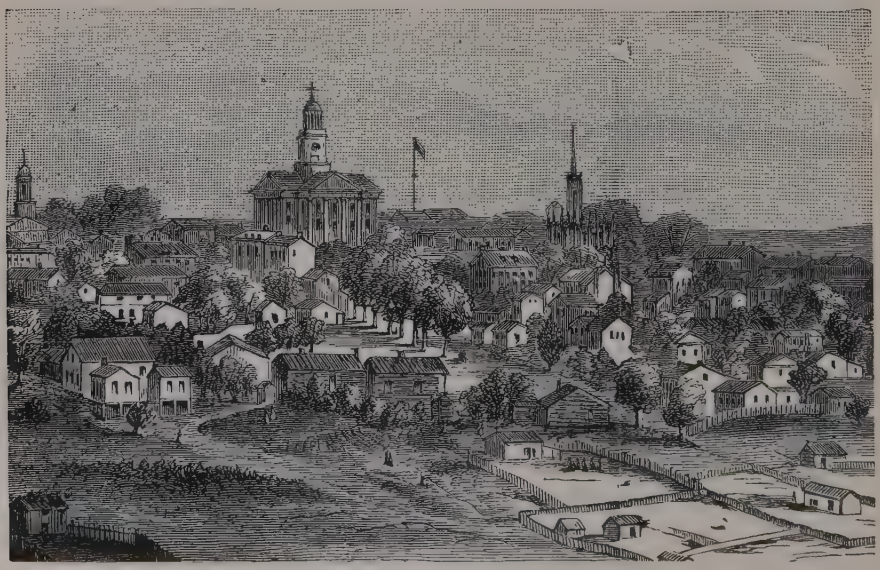
Vicksburg, city, Mississippi, on the Mississippi River, near the mouth of the Yazoo. It is in one of the richest cotton-growing sections of the country; has a very large trade in that staple and also in lumber; and is the site of a national military park, with restored fortifications and numerous soldiers' memorials, and a

national cemetery containing the remains of 16,727 soldiers, of whom 12,723 are unknown dead. Pop. (1900), 14,834; (1910), 20,814.

Siege of the City.—This noteworthy military operation began at the close of 1862 and ended early in July following. The Confederates had blockaded the Mississippi River by planting heavy batteries on bluffs at Vicksburg and Port Hudson. These formed connections between the Confederates on each side of that stream, and it was important to break those connections. To this end General Grant concentrated his forces near the Tallahatchee River, in northern Mississippi, where Generals Hovey and Washburne had been operating with troops which they had led from Helena, Ark. Grant had gathered a large quantity of supplies at Holley Springs, which, through carelessness or treachery, had fallen (Dec. 20, 1862) into the hands of Gen. Earl Van Dorn, and he was compelled to fall back to Grand Junction to save his army. Taking advantage of this movement, a large Confederate force under Lieut.-Gen. J. C. Pemberton had been gathered at Vicksburg for the protection of that post.

MONUMENT AT VICKSBURG, 1866.

On the day when Grant's supplies were seized Gen. W. T. Sherman left Memphis with transports bearing guns to besiege Vicksburg. At Friar's Point they were joined by troops from Hatteras, and were met by Commodore Porter, whose fleet of gunboats was at the mouth of the Yazoo River, just above Vicksburg. The two commanders arranged a plan for attacking the city in the rear. The troops and boats went up the Yazoo to capture some batteries that blockaded the way, but were unsuccessful, and abandoned the project. Early in January Gen. J. A. McClernand arrived and, ranking Sherman, took the



VICKSBURG DURING THE CIVIL WAR.

GENERAL PEMBERTON'S HEADQUARTERS AT VICKSBURG.

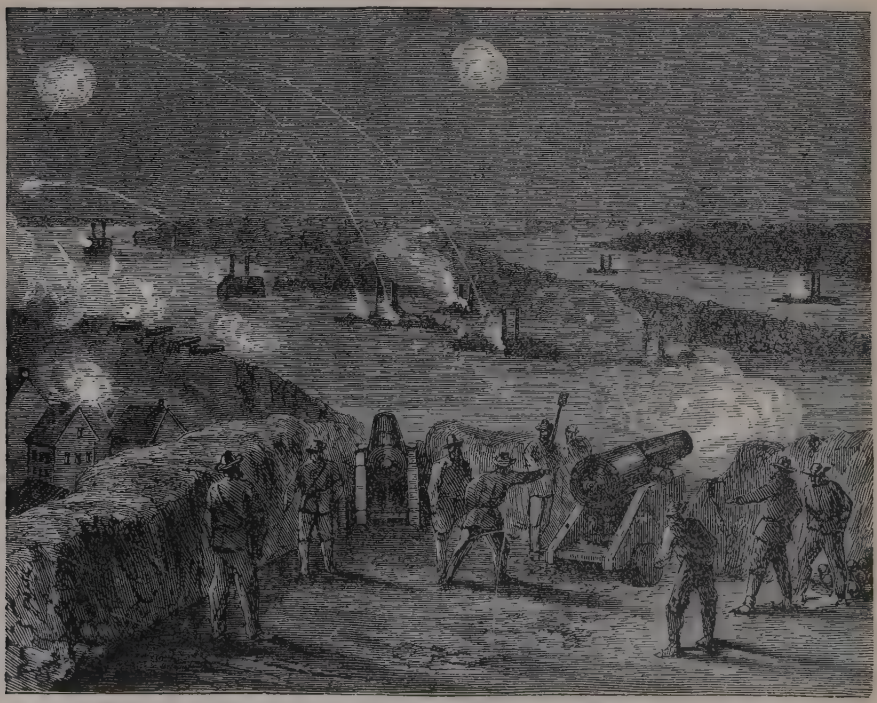
chief command, and went up the Arkansas River to attack Confederate posts. Meanwhile General Grant had arranged his army into four corps, and with it descended the river from Memphis to prosecute the siege of Vicksburg with vigor. He was soon convinced that it could not be taken by direct assault. He tried to perfect the canal begun by Williams, but failed. Then he sent a land and naval force up the Yazoo to gain the rear of Vicksburg, but was repulsed. Finally Grant sent a strong land force down the west side of the Mississippi, and Porter ran by the batteries at Vicksburg in the night (April 16, 1863) with nearly his whole fleet.

Then Grant prepared for vigorous operations in the rear of Vicksburg, on the line of the Black River. On April 27 Porter ran by the Confederate batteries at Grand Gulf, when Grant's army crossed a little below, gained a victory at Port Gibson, and calling Sherman down the west side of the Mississippi and across it to join him (May 8), the whole force pushed forward and captured Jackson, the capital of Mississippi. Then the victorious army turned westward towards Vicksburg, and, after two successful battles, swept on and closely invested the strongly fortified city in the rear (May 19), receiving their supplies from a base on the Yazoo established by Porter. For a fortnight the army had subsisted off the country through which it passed. After a brief rest Grant began the siege of Vicksburg. Sherman had taken possession of the Walnut Hills, near Chickasaw Bayou, cutting off a Confederate force at Haines's Bluff; while McClernand, advancing to the left, took position at Mount Albans, so as to cover the roads leading out of that city. Porter, with his fleet of gunboats, was lying in the Mississippi, above Vicksburg, and was preparing the way for a successful siege, which Grant began with Sherman on the right, McPherson in the centre, and McClernand on the left.

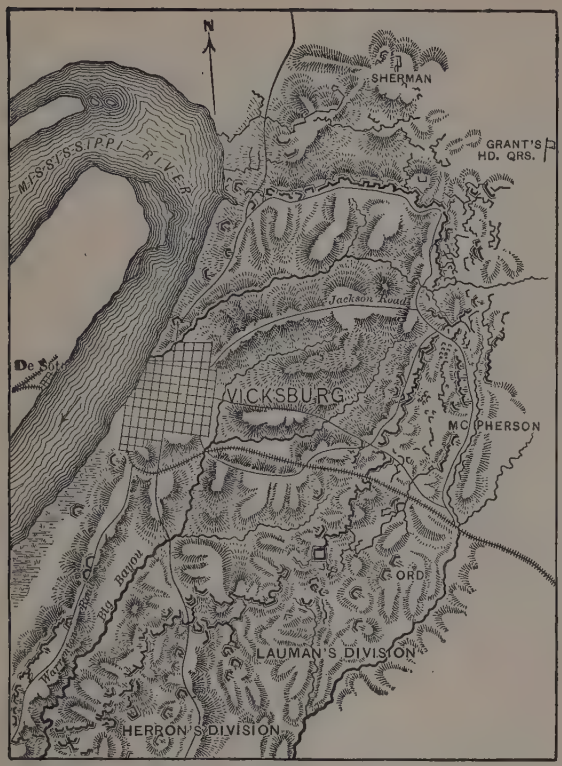
Grant was holding a line about 20 miles in extent—from the Yazoo to the Mississippi at Warrenton. He prepared to storm the batteries on the day after the arrival of his troops before them. It was begun by Sherman's corps in the afternoon of May 19, Blair's division taking the lead. There had been artillery firing all the morning; now there was close work. The Nationals, after a severe struggle, were repulsed. Grant engaged Com-

modore Porter to assist in another assault on the 22d. All night of the 21st and 22d Porter kept six mortars playing upon the city and the works, and sent three gunboats to shell the water-batteries. It was a fearful night for Vicksburg, but the next day was more fearful still. At 10 A.M. on the 22d Grant's whole line moved to the attack. As before, Blair led the van, and very soon there was a general battle. At two different points the right was repulsed. Finally McClernand, on the left, sent word that he held two captured forts. Then another charge upon the works by a part of Sherman's troops occurred, but without success. The centre, under McPherson, met with no better success, and, with heavy losses, McClernand could not hold all that he had won. Porter had joined in the fray; but this second assault was unsuccessful. The Nationals had lost about 3,000 men.

Then Grant determined on a regular siege. His effective force then did not exceed 20,000 men. The beleaguered garrison had only about 15,000 effective men out of 30,000 within the lines, with short rations for only a month. Grant was soon reinforced by troops of Generals Lanman, A. J. Smith, and Kimball, which were assigned to the command of General Washburne. Then came General Herron from Missouri (June 11) with his division, and then a part of the 9th Corps, under General Parke. With these troops, his force numbered nearly 70,000 men, and, with Porter's fleet, Vicksburg was completely enclosed. Porter kept up a continual bombardment and cannonade for forty days, during which time he fired 7,000 mortar-shells, and the gunboats 4,500 shells. Grant drew his lines closer and closer. He kept up a bombardment day and night. The inhabitants had taken shelter in caves dug in the clay hills on which the city stands. In these families lived day and night, and in these children were born. Famine attacked the inhabitants, and mule-meat made a savory dish. The only hope of the Confederates for deliverance



PORTER'S FLEET SHELLING THE BATTERIES AT VICKSBURG.



MAP OF THE SIEGE OF VICKSBURG

was in the arrival of Johnston from Jackson with a force competent to drive the Nationals away. As June wore on, Grant pressed the siege with vigor. Johnston tried to help Pemberton, but could not. Grant proceeded to mine under some of the Confederate works to blow them up. One of these, known as Fort Hill Bastion, was in front of McPherson, and on the afternoon of June 25 it was exploded with terrible effect, making a great breach, at which a fierce struggle ensued. Three days later there was another explosion, when another struggle took place. Other mines were ready to be fired, and Grant prepared for a general assault.

Pemberton lost hope. For forty-five days he had been engaged in a brave struggle, and saw nothing but submission in the end, and on the morning of July 3 he raised a white flag. That afternoon Grant and Pemberton met and arranged terms of surrender, and at 10 A.M. the next day the vanquished brigades of the Confederates began to march out of the lines at Vicksburg as prisoners of war. At the same time there was a great National victory at GETTYSBURG (*q. v.*); and July 4, 1863, was the turning-point in the Civil War. In the battles from Port Gibson to Vicksburg Grant lost 9,855 men, of whom 1,223 were killed. In these engagements he had made 37,000 prisoners; and the Confederates had lost, besides, 10,000 killed and wounded, with a vast number of stragglers. Two days before the surrender a Vicksburg newspaper, printed on wall-paper, ridiculed a reported assurance of Grant that he should dine in that city on July 4, saying, "Ulysses must first get

CAVE LIFE IN VICKSBURG.

BLOWING UP FORT HILL BASTION.

into the city before he dines in it." The same paper eulogized the "luxury of mule-meat and fricasseed kitten."

Victor, ORVILLE JAMES, author; born in Sandusky, O., Oct. 23, 1827; graduated at the Theological Institute, Norwalk, O., in 1847; edited the *Cosmopolitan Art Journal* in 1856–61; *The Biographical Library; American Battles* series; *American Tales* series, etc. His publications include *History of the Southern Rebellion; History of American Conspiracies; Lives of John Paul Jones, Israel Putnam, Anthony Wayne, Ethan Allen, Winfield Scott,* and *Garibaldi;* and *Incidents and Anecdotes of the War.* He died in Hohokus, N. J., March 14, 1910.

Viele, EGBERT LUDOVICKUS, military engineer; born in Waterford, N. Y., June 17, 1825; graduated at West Point in 1847; served through a portion of the war against Mexico. He resigned in 1853, and was appointed State engineer of New Jersey. In 1857 he was engineer-in-chief of the Central Park (N. Y.) commission, and, in 1860, of Prospect Park, Brooklyn. In August, 1861, he was commissioned a brigadier-general of volunteers, and accompanied the expedition to Port Royal. In the siege of Fort Pulaski he was in command of the investing forces; and he led the advance in the capture of Norfolk, of which place he was made military governor in August, and remained so until his resignation in October, 1863. After this he was a civil engineer in New York City, becoming a park commissioner of the same city in 1883, and a Democratic member of Congress in 1884. He wrote a *Hand-book for Active Service; Reports on the Central Park; Topographical Survey of New Jersey; A Topographical Atlas of the City of New York,* etc. He died in New York City, April 22, 1902.

Vienna (Va.), SKIRMISH NEAR. At the middle of June, 1861, the Confederates were hovering along the line of the railway between Alexandria and Leesburg, Va., and on the 16th they fired upon a railway train at the little village of Vienna, 15 miles from Alexandria. Ohio troops under Gen. Alexander McD. McCook were

ordered to picket and guard this road. They left their encampment near Alexandria on June 17, accompanied by Brig.-Gen. Robert C. Schenck, and proceeded cautiously in cars towards Vienna. Detachments were left at different points, and when they approached that village only four companies (less than 300 men) were on the train. A detachment of 600 South Carolinians, a company of artillery, and two companies of cavalry, sent out by Beauregard, were waiting in ambush. These had just torn up the track and destroyed a water-tank, when they heard the whistling of the coming train. In a deep cut at a curve of the railway they planted two cannon so as to sweep the road, and masked them. When the train was fairly exposed the cannon opened fire and swept the cut with grape and canister. These went over the heads of the sitting soldiers. The troops leaped from the train, fell back along the railway, rallied in a grove near by, and maintained their position so firmly that the Confederates, believing them to be the advance of a heavier force, retired and hastened to Fairfax Court-house. The Union force lost five killed, six wounded, and thirteen missing. The loss of the Confederates is unknown. When the latter ascertained how small was the force they had assailed they returned and took possession of Vienna and Falls Church Village.

Vieques, an island 13 miles east of Porto Rico; 21 miles long and 6 miles wide. Its land is very fertile and adapted to the cultivation of almost all the fruits and vegetables that grow in the West Indies. Cattle are raised and sugar cultivated. The town Isabel Segunda is on the north, and the port is unsafe in times of northerly wind, like all the anchorages on that side; the few ports on the south are better, the best being Punta Arenas. Not long ago there were two importing and exporting houses on the island of Vieques, but on account of the long period of drought and the high duties on foreign-imported goods trade has decreased to local consumption only. All supplies are brought from San Juan, the majority being of American origin. The climate is fine and may be considered healthy; there have never been any contagious diseases. The district contains Culebra Island, and a number of smaller islands. According to the census of 1899, the total population of the district was 6,642; population (1910), 10,425.

Vigilance Committee. See California; San Francisco.

Vignaud, Jean Henry, diplomatist; born in New Orleans, Nov. 27, 1830; received a fair education; captain of the 6th Louisiana Regiment in 1861–62; secretary of the Confederate diplomatic commission in Paris, in 1863; connected with the Alabama claims commission at Geneva in 1872; was first secretary of the American legation in Paris in 1882–1909.

Vikings. See Northmen, The.

Vilas, William Freeman, statesman; born in Chelsea, Vt., July 9, 1840; graduated at the Vermont State University in 1858; admitted to the bar; served in the Civil War in 1861–63; resumed the practice of law; elected to the Vermont legislature in 1884; Postmaster-General of the United States in 1885–88; Secretary of the Interior in 1888–89; and United States Senator from Wisconsin in 1891–97. He died in Madison, Wis., Aug. 27, 1908.

Villa, Francisco, assumed name of Doroteo Arango, revolutionist; born in San Juan del Rio, Durango, Mexico, in 1877; early became a bandit, cattle thief, and murderer; had a price put on his head by President Diaz, who sought his capture for ten years; and entered the revolt against Diaz as a colonel under Madero, subsequently allying himself with Carranza against Huerta. In November, 1913, he began to display remarkable ability as a military leader and strategist; on the 14th he captured Ciudad Juarez, on the 24th he defeated the Federals to the south of that city, and on the 30th made himself master of the State of Chihuahua by capturing its capital city. Gomez Palacio and Torreon next fell before him, and victory seemed to crown his every move. In September, 1914, after declaring that he had neither the ambition nor qualifications to become president, he broke off all relations with Carranza, and, Feb. 3, 1915, announced his assumption of the political authority.

Villard, Henry, financier; born in Spire, Germany, April 11, 1835; received a collegiate education; came to the United States in 1853; settled in Chicago and

became a newspaper correspondent; and went to the Colorado gold region in 1859 as a writer for the Cincinnati *Commercial*. During the Civil War he was a Washington correspondent for Western and Eastern papers. In 1873 he purchased the Oregon and California Railroad and the Oregon steamship companies for German stockholders, and two years later became receiver, with C. S. Greeley, of the Kansas Pacific Railroad. He then organized the Oregon and Transcontinental Company, which gained control of the Northern Pacific and of the Oregon Railway and Pacific companies. He was president of the Northern Pacific in 1881–84, and chairman of the board of directors of the same company in 1889–93. He bought the Edison Lamp Company, of Newark, N. J., and the Edison Machine Works, of Schenectady, N. Y., in 1890, and from these formed the Edison General Electric Company, of which he was president for two years. He was the author of *The Pike's Peak Gold Regions*, and was a liberal promoter of educational, religious, and charitable institutions. He died in Dobbs Ferry, N. Y., Nov. 11, 1900.

Villeraye, CHARLES STANISLAS, VISCOUNT DE, adventurer; born in Provence, France, presumably about 1820; went to California in 1849; joined Count de Raousset-Boulbon in the Restauroda enterprise established in Mexico in 1852, for the purpose of mining gold in a grant given by the Mexican government. Villeraye was commissioned to equip an expedition in San Francisco, where he was later joined by Raousset. They reached Guaymas in June, 1852, with 270 armed men, but their entrance into the country was prevented by General Blanco. They then marched to Hermosillo, which they attacked, thus arousing the whole country against them, and were compelled to surrender to Blanco. Soon afterwards Villeraye, Raousset, and a few others returned to San Francisco. The trouble was renewed when Raousset forwarded recruits to Algodones, near Guaymas, in 1854. While leading a movement against the latter place on July 13, 1854, Villeraye was killed.

Villeré, JACQUES PHILIPPE ROY DE, military officer; born in France; was an officer of a regiment which was sent to Canada. He later became naval secretary of Louisiana. In 1769 he led a rebellion against the Spanish authorities, and was captured and killed in Louisiana in the same year.

His son, JACQUES, born near New Orleans, La., April 28, 1761, was major-general of volunteers under Gen. Andrew Jackson in 1814–15; and governor of Louisiana in 1818–22. He died in New Orleans, La., in 1831.

His grandson, GABRIEL, born in Louisiana, March 15, 1785, was major of militia. During the invasion of the British he was sent to watch the Bayou Bienvenu. He was captured when the enemy landed at Fisherman's Village, but escaped to New Orleans, where he gave information of their approach to General Jackson. He died in New Orleans, La., July 6, 1852.

Villeré's Plantation, BATTLE AT. The British army for the invasion of Louisiana in 1814 were landed on the shore of Lake Borgne, after the fleet had destroyed the American flotilla on that sheet of water, and pushed on in barges towards the Mississippi through the Bienvenu Bayou and Villeré's Canal. They encamped on Villeré's plantation, about 9 miles from New Orleans and in sight of the Mississippi. As they approached that spot Lieutenant-Colonel Thornton, of the British army, pushed forward with a detachment, surrounded the mansion of General Villeré, the commander of the 1st Division of Louisiana militia, and made him a prisoner. He soon escaped to New Orleans. Early on Dec. 15 Jackson had been informed of the capture of the American flotilla on Lake Borgne. He at once proceeded to fortify and strengthen every approach to the city. He sent messengers to Generals Coffee, Carroll, and Thomas, urging them to hasten to New Orleans with the Tennesseeans, and directed General Winchester, at Mobile, to be on the alert. On the 18th he had a grand review of all the troops at his command, and there was much enthusiasm among the soldiers and the citizens.

The call upon the Tennessee generals was quickly responded to. Coffee came first, and encamped 5 miles above New Orleans. Carroll arrived on Dec. 22; at the same time Major Hinds appeared with a troop of horse. Meanwhile the invaders

were making ready to march on New Orleans, believing their presence at Villeré's was unknown in the city. It was a mistake. Jackson was fully informed of their movements, and in the afternoon of the 23d issued orders for a march to meet the invaders; and Commodore Patterson was directed to proceed down the Mississippi with such vessels as might be in readiness to flank the British at Villeré's. At 7 P.M. the armed schooner *Carolina*, Captain Henley, the only vessel ready, dropped down the river in the darkness and anmoved along the river bank. The left, commanded by Coffee, was composed of his brigade of mounted riflemen, Hinds's dragoons, and Beale's riflemen. They skirted a cypress swamp in the rear to cut off the communication of the invaders from Lake Borgne. The alarm and confusion in the British camp caused by the attack of the *Carolina* had scarcely been checked when the crack of musketry in the direction of their outposts startled them. General Keane, the commander of the British, now began to believe the tales

MAP OF OPERATIONS, DECEMBER 23, 1814.

chored within musket-shot of the centre of the British camp. She immediately opened fire from her batteries, and in the course of ten minutes killed or wounded 100 men. The British extinguished their camp-fires, and poured upon the *Carolina* a shower of rockets and bullets, but with little effect. In less than half an hour the schooner drove the invaders from their camp in great confusion.

Meantime Jackson was pressing forward to the attack, piloted by Colonel De la Ronde and General Villeré. The right of Jackson's troops was composed of regulars, Plauché's and D'Aquin's brigades, McRea's artillery, and some marines and of prisoners concerning the great number of the defenders of New Orleans—"12,000 strong"—and told the dashing Thornton to do as he pleased. He started with a detachment to support the pickets, and directed another detachment, 500 strong, to keep open the communication with Lake Borgne. Thornton was soon met by a column led by Jackson in person, 1,500 in number, with two field-pieces, and perfectly covered by the darkness. At the same time the artillerists and marines advanced along the levee roads, when a desperate attempt was made to seize their cannon.

Very soon the engagement became general. Meanwhile Coffee had approached.

dismounted his men, and moved in silence; while Beale, with his riflemen, stole around to the extreme left of the invaders on Villeré's plantation, and by a sudden movement penetrated almost to the heart of the British camp, killing several and making others prisoners. At the same time a number of Beale's men were captured, and Thornton fell heavily on Coffee's brigade. For a while the battle raged fearfully, not in regular order, but in detachments, and often in duels. In the darkness friends fought each other by mistake. The Tennesseeans used long knives and tomahawks with effect. A length the British line fell back and took shelter behind the levee, more willing to endure danger from the shots of the *Carolina* than bullets from the rifles of the Tennesseeans. Jackson could not follow up his victory with safety in the darkness, intensified by a thick fog, so he led his troops back a short distance.

The conflict ceased at about 9.30 P.M., and all was becoming quiet, when, at 11 o'clock, firing was heard below Villeré's. Some Louisiana militia, under Gen. David Morgan, encamped at the English Turn of the Mississippi, had advanced and encountered British pickets at Jumonville's plantation. The loss of the Americans in this engagement was twenty-four killed, 115 wounded, and seventy-four made prisoners. The British lost about 400 men. The number of Americans engaged in the battle was about 1,800; that of the British, including reinforcements that came up during the engagement, was 2,500. The *Carolina* gave the Americans a great advantage. See JACKSON, ANDREW; NEW ORLEANS.

Vilmot, CHARLES STANISLAS, author; born in St. Nazaire, France, in 1749; served in Count Rochambeau's army in 1780–82; remained in the United States till 1786. He was the author of *Observations on the Administrative Services of the United States of North America; Journal of the Campaign, with Notes During the War for American Independence;* and *Notes and Sketches of the United States of North America.* He died in Nantes, France, in 1794.

Vincennes, a city and county seat of Knox county, Ind., on the Wabash River, 58 miles south of Terre Haute. A French mission was established here in 1702, and soon afterwards a fort. With the surrender of Canada, Vincennes passed into the possession of the British, and on Feb. 26, 1779, it was captured from them by General Clark. On the organization of the Territory of Indiana in 1800 the town became the seat of government, and remained so till 1814, when a change was made to Corydon. On Feb. 13, 1856, it was chartered as a city. Pop. (1900), 10,249; (1910) 14,895. See CLARK, GEORGE ROGERS.

Vincennes, JEAN BAPTISTE BISSOT, SIEURDE, explorer; born in Quebec, Canada, in January, 1688; a reputed nephew or brother-in-law of Louis Joliet; was much employed among the Indians in the West, who greatly respected him. He went to the Miami country in 1704, where he remained until his death. In an expedition against the Chickasaws in that year (1736) he lost his life. He is supposed to have lived on the site of Vincennes at that time, and is regarded as the founder of the city of Vincennes.

Vincent, FRANK, traveller; born in Brooklyn, N. Y., April 2, 1848; was engaged in travel and explorations in all parts of the world for fifteen years. He presented a valuable collection of Siamese and Cambodian antiquities, arts, and industrial objects to the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York City; and is a member of many geographical, ethnological, and archæological societies.

Vincent, JOHN HEYL, clergyman; born in Tuscaloosa, Ala., Feb. 23, 1832; began to preach when eighteen years old; joined the New Jersey Conference in 1853; ordained deacon in 1855; elder in 1857, when he was transferred to Rock River Conference; held pastorates in Galena, Chicago, and other cities in 1857–65; established the *Northwest Sunday-School Quarterly* in 1865; corresponding secretary of the Sunday-school union in 1868–84; one of the founders and chancellor of the Chautauqua Assembly and of the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle. He was elected a bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church in 1888. He wrote *The Chautauqua Movement; The Church at Home; The Modern Sunday-School,* etc.

Vincent, PHILIP, clergyman; born in Comsbrough, Yorkshire, England, Nov. 20,

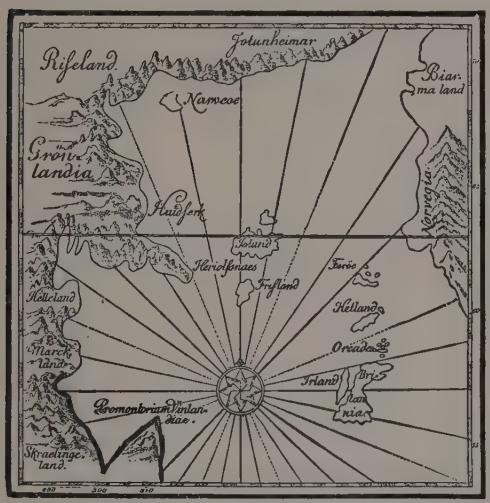
1600; educated at the University of Cambridge; ordained in 1625; later came to the United States and settled in Massachusetts. He wrote *The True Relation of the Late Battle fought in New England between the English and the Pequot Savages.* He died in England after 1638.

Vincent, THOMAS MCCURDY, military officer; born in Cadiz, O., Nov. 15, 1832; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1853; assistant professor of chemistry there in 1859–61; served through the Civil War; retired in 1896 as brigadier-general. He is the author of *The Military Power of the United States During the War of the Rebellion; Lincoln and Stanton; Battle of Bull Run,* etc. He died in Washington, D. C., Nov. 30, 1909.

VINLAND

Vinland, a name given to a portion of North America discovered by the Scandinavian navigators, because of the abundance of grapes found there. See NORTHMEN IN AMERICA.

The famous *Saga of Eric the Red,* which gives the original accounts of the Northmen's voyages to Vinland, exists in two different versions, that known as the *Hauks-bók,* written by Hauk Erlendsson between 1305 and 1334, and that made about 1387 by the priest Jón Thórdharson, contained in the compilation known as the *Flateyar-bók,* or "Flat Island Book." Jón used parts of the original saga, and added a considerable amount of material concerning the Vinland voyages derived from other sources, to us unknown. It is this second version which is reproduced, almost in its entirety.



MAP OF THE NORTH ATLANTIC, BY THE ICELANDER SIGURD STEPHANIUS, IN 1570.

The Vinland voyages belong to about the year 1000. These Icelandic chronicles belong therefore to a date three centuries later. They were doubtless based upon earlier writings which had come down from the times of Leif and Thorfinn, subject to the various influences which affected similar writings at that period the world over. An interesting and valuable confirmation of the simple fact of the visit of the Northmen to "Vinland" is given us by Adam of Bremen, who visited Denmark between 1047 and 1073, when the voyages would have been within the memory of living men and natural subjects of conversation. In speaking of the Scandinavian countries, in his book, Adam describes the colonies in Iceland and Greenland, and says that there is another country or island beyond, which is called Vinland, on account of the wild grapes that grow there. He makes the assertion that corn also grows in Vinland without cultivation; and, thinking this may seem strange to European readers, he adds that his statement is based upon "trustworthy reports of the Danes."

The great work of Professor Charles Christian Rafn, of Copenhagen, *Antiquitates Americanæ,* published in 1837, first brought these Icelandic sagas prominently before modern scholars. Professor Rafn's work was most elaborate and thorough, and very little in the way of new material has been given us since his time, although his theories and the general subject of the Northmen's voyages and the

ROCK AT DIGHTON, MASS., BEARING A SUPPOSED VIKING INSCRIPTION.

whereabouts of Vinland have been discussed in numberless volumes during the fifty years since he wrote. Perhaps the most valuable work is that by Arthur Middleton Reeves. The title of Mr. Reeves's work is *The Finding of Wineland the Good: The History of the Icelandic Discovery of America* (London, 1890). This work contains phototype plates of the original Icelandic vellums, English translations of the two sagas, and very thorough historical accounts and critical discussions. The translation used here is that of Mr. Reeves. De Costa's *Pre-Columbian Discovery of America by the Northmen* and Slafter's *Voyages of the Northmen to America* are earlier works of high authority, going over the same ground and also containing translations of the sagas. Dr. Slafter's book has an added value from its critical accounts of all the important works on the subject which had appeared up to that time (1877). A completer bibliography, now accessible, is that by Justin Winsor, appended to his chapter on "Pre-Columbian Explorations" in the *Narrative and Critical History of America*, vol. i.

The best popular account of the Norsemen and their voyages is that by Mr. Fiske, in his *Discovery of America*, vol. i., chap. ii. Mr. Fiske is refreshingly sound and sane in his treatment of the whole subject, which with so many writers has been a field for the wildest speculations. He shows the absurdity of the earlier writers who used to associate the Old Mill at Newport and the inscriptions on the Dighton rock with the Northmen, and the slight grounds on which, at the present time, enthusiasts like Professor Horsford have attempted to determine details so exactly as to claim that Leif Erikson settled on the banks of Charles

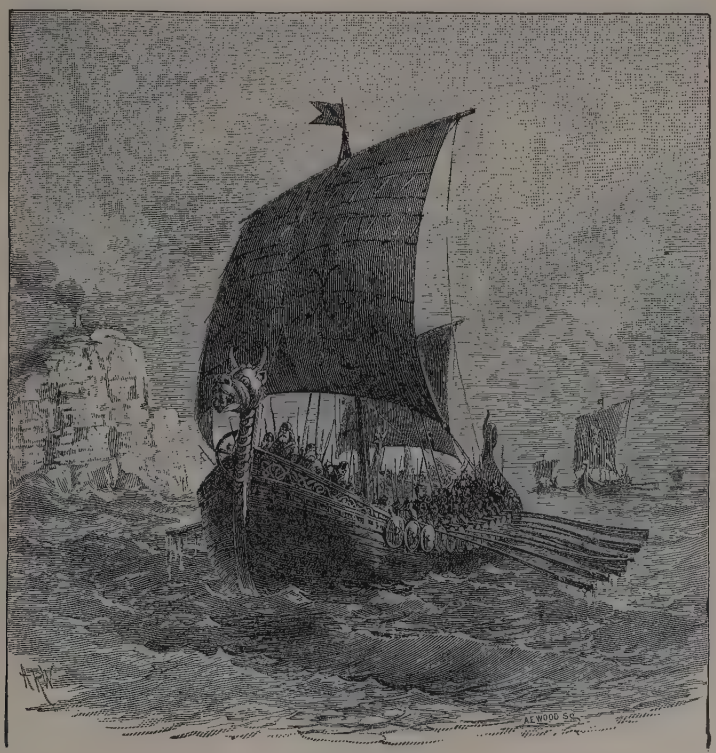
River. "On the whole," concludes Mr. Fiske, "we may say with some confidence that the place described by our chroniclers as Vinland was situated somewhere between Point Judith and Cape Breton; possibly we may narrow our limits, and say that it was somewhere between Cape Cod and Cape Ann. But the latter conclusion is much less secure than the former. In such a case as this, the more we narrow our limits, the greater our liability to error."

It should be said that many scholarly investigators hold that all the conditions of the descriptions of Vinland in the sagas are met by the shores of Labrador and Newfoundland, although the weight of opinion is in favor of the New England coast. The accounts themselves make any exacter determination impossible; and no genuine Norse remains have ever been discovered in New England.

The claim that Columbus knew of these discoveries of the Northmen is quite improbable. He simply set out to find a western route to Asia. The course of his voyage was not such as he would have taken had he had in mind the Vinland of the Northmen; and he made no mention of Vinland in favor of his expedition at the Spanish Court. Had he known of it, he certainly would have mentioned it; for, as Colonel Higginson so well says (see his *Larger History of the United States*), for the purpose of his argument, "an ounce of Vinland would have been worth a pound of cosmography."

The Voyages to Vinland.—From the saga of Eric the Red. Translated by Arthur Middleton Reeves.

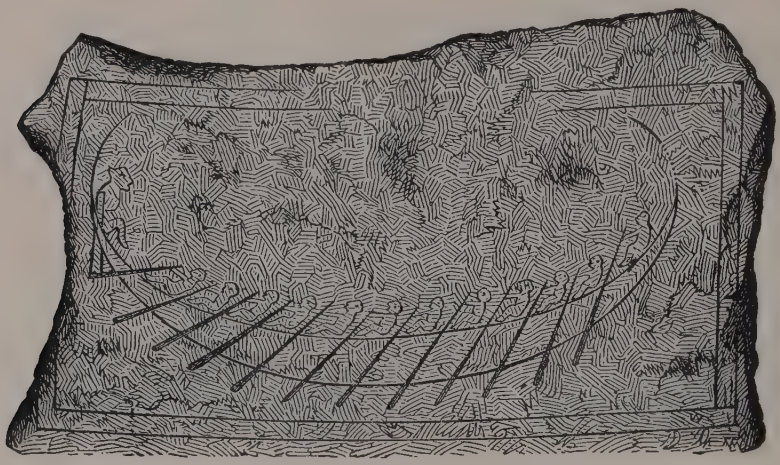
After that sixteen winters had elapsed, from the time when Eric the Red went to colonize Greenland, Leif, Eric's son, sailed



ANCIENT VIKING SHIP

out from Greenland to Norway. He arrived in Drontheim in the autumn, when King Olaf Tryggvason was come down from the North, out of Halagoland. Leif put into Nidaros with his ship, and set out at once to visit the king. King Olaf composed the Sea-Roller's Song, which contains this stave:

"Mine adventure to the Meek One,
Monk-heart-searcher, I commit now;
He, who heaven's halls doth govern,
Hold the hawk's-seat ever o'er me!"



VIKINGS' WAR-SHIP, ENGRAVED ON A ROCK IN NORWAY.

expounded the faith to him, as he did to other heathen men who came to visit him. It proved easy for the king to persuade Leif, and he was accordingly baptized, together with all of his shipmates. Leif remained throughout the winter with the king, by whom he was well entertained.

Heriulf was a son of Bard Heriulfsson. He was a kinsman of Ingolf, the first colonist. Ingolf allotted land to Heriulf between Vâg and Reykianess, and he dwelt at first at Drepstokk. Heriulf's wife's name was Thorgerd, and their son, whose name was Biarni, was a most promising man. He formed an inclination for voyaging while he was still young, and he prospered both in property and public esteem. It was his custom to pass his winters alternately abroad and with his father. Biarni soon became the owner of a trading-ship; and during the last winter that he spent in Norway [his father] Heriulf determined to accompany Eric on his voyage to Greenland, and made his preparations to give up his farm. Upon the ship with Heriulf was a Christian man from the Hebrides, he it was who Heriulf settled at Heriulfsness, and was a most distinguished man. Eric the Red dwelt at Brattahlid, where he was held in the highest esteem, and all men paid him homage. These were Eric's children: Leif, Thorvald, and Thorstein, and a daughter whose name was Freydis; she was wedded to a man named Thorvard, and they dwelt at Gardar, where the episcopal seat now is. She was a very haughty woman, while Thorvard was a man of little force of character, and Freydis had been wedded to him chiefly because of his wealth. At that time the people of Greenland were heathen.

Biarni arrived with his ship at Eyrar [in Iceland] in the summer of the same year, in the spring of which his father had sailed away. Biarni was much surprised when he heard this news, and would not discharge his cargo. His shipmates inquired of him what he intended to do, and he replied that it was his purpose to keep to his custom, and make his home for the winter with his father; "And I will take the ship to Greenland, if you will bear me company." They all replied that they would abide by his de-

cision. Then said Biarni, "Our voyage must be regarded as foolhardy, seeing that no one of us has ever been in the Greenland Sea." Nevertheless, they put out to sea when they were equipped for the voyage, and sailed for three days, until the land was hidden by the water, and then the fair wind died out, and north winds arose, and fogs, and they knew not whither they were drifting, and thus it lasted for many "dœgr." Then they saw the sun again, and were able to determine the quarters of the heavens; they hoisted sail, and sailed that "dœgr" through before they saw land. They discussed among themselves what land it could be, and Biarni said that he did not believe that it could be Greenland. They asked whether he wished to sail to this land or not. "It is my counsel" [said he] "to sail close to the land." They did so, and soon saw that the land was level, and covered with woods, and that there were small hillocks upon it. They left the land on their larboard, and let the sheet turn toward the land. They sailed for two "dœgr" before they saw another land. They asked whether Biarni thought this was Greenland yet. He replied that

OLD NORSE RUINS IN GREENLAND.

he did not think this any more like Greenland than the former, "because in Greenland there are said to be many great ice mountains." They soon approached this land, and saw that it was a flat and wooded country. The fair wind failed them then, and the crew took counsel together, and concluded that it would be wise to land there, but Biarni would not consent to this. They alleged that they were in need of both wood and water. "Ye have no lack of either of these," says Biarni,—a course, forsooth, which won him blame among his shipmates. He bade them hoist sail, which they did, and turning the prow from the land, they sailed out upon the high seas, with south-westerly gales, for three "dœgr," when they saw the third land; this land was high and mountainous, with ice mountains upon it. They asked Biarni then whether he would land there, and he replied that he was not disposed to do so, "because this land does not appear to me to offer any attractions." Nor did they lower their sail, but held their course off the land, and saw that it was an island. They left this land astern, and held out to sea with the same fair wind. The wind waxed amain, and Biarni directed them to reef, and not to sail at a speed unbefitting their ship and rigging. They sailed now for four "dœgr," when they saw the fourth land. Again they asked Biarni whether he thought this could be Greenland or not. Biarni answers, "This is likest Greenland, according to that which has been reported to me concerning it, and here we will steer to the land." They directed their course thither, and landed in the evening, below a cape upon which there was a boat, and there, upon this cape, dwelt Heriulf, Biarni's father, whence the cape took its name, and was afterwards called Heriulfsness. Biarni now went to his father, gave up his voyaging, and remained with his father while Heriulf lived, and continued to live there after his father.

Next to this is now to be told how Biarni Heriulfsson came out from Greenland on a visit to Earl Eric, by whom he was well received. Biarni gave an account of his travels [upon the occasion] when he saw the lands, and the people thought that he had been lacking in enterprise, since he had no report to give concerning these countries; and the fact brought him reproach. Biarni was appointed one of the Earl's men, and went out to Greenland the following summer. There was now much talk about voyages of discovery. Leif, the son of Eric the

Red, of Brattahlid, visited Biarni Herulfsson and bought a ship of him, and collected a crew, until they formed altogether a company of thirty-five men. Leif invited his father, Eric, to become the leader of the expedition, but Eric declined, saying that he was then stricken in years, and adding that he was less able to endure the exposure of sea life than he had been. Leif replied that he would nevertheless be the one who would be most apt to bring good luck, and Eric yielded to Leif's solicitation, and rode from home when they were ready to sail. When he was but a short distance from the ship, the horse which Eric was riding stumbled, and he was thrown from his back and wounded his foot, whereupon he exclaimed, "It is not designed for me to discover more lands than the one in which we are now living, nor can we now continue longer together." Eric returned home to Brattahlid, and Leif pursued his way to the ship with his companions, thirty-five men. One of the company was a German, named Tyrker. They put the ship in order; and, when they were ready, they sailed out to sea, and found first that land which Biarni and his shipmates found last. They sailed up to the land, and cast anchor, and launched a boat, and went ashore, and saw no grass there. Great ice mountains lay inland back from the sea, and it was as a [tableland of] flat rock all the way from the sea to the ice mountains; and the country seemed to them to be entirely devoid of good qualities. Then said Leif, "It has not come to pass with us in regard to this land as with Biarni, that we have not gone upon it. To this country I will now give a name, and call it Helluland." They returned to the ship, put out to sea, and found a second land. They sailed again to the land, and came to anchor, and launched the boat, and went ashore. This was a level wooded land; and there were broad stretches of white sand where they went, and the land was level by the sea. Then said Leif, "This land shall have a name after its nature; and we will call it Markland." They returned to the ship forthwith, and sailed away upon the main with north-east winds, and were out two "dœgr" before they sighted land. They sailed toward this land, and came to an island which lay to the northward off the land. There they went ashore and looked about them, the weather being fine, and they observed that there was dew upon the grass, and it so happened that they touched the dew with their hands, and touched their hands to their mouths, and it seemed to them that they had never before tasted anything so sweet as this. They went aboard their ship again and sailed into a certain sound, which lay between the island and a cape, which jutted out from the land on the north, and they stood in westering past the cape. At ebb-tide there were broad reaches of shallow water there, and they ran their ship aground there, and it was a long distance from the ship to the ocean; yet were they so anxious to go ashore that they could not wait until the tide should rise under their ship, but hastened to the land, where a certain river flows out from the lake. As soon as the tide rose beneath their ship, however, they took the boat and rowed to the ship, which they conveyed up the river, and so into the lake, where they cast anchor and carried their hammocks ashore from the ship, and built themselves booths there. They afterward determined to establish themselves there for the winter, and they accordingly built a large house. There was no lack of salmon there either in the river or in the lake, and larger salmon than they had ever seen before. The country thereabouts seemed to be possessed of such good qualities that cattle would need no fodder there during the winters. There was no frost there in the winters, and the grass withered but little. The days and nights there were of more equal length than in Greenland or Iceland. On the shortest day of winter the sun was up between "eyktarstad" and "dagmalastad." When they had completed their house, Leif said to his companions, "I propose now to divide our company into two groups, and to set about an exploration of the country. One-half of our party shall remain at home at the house, while the other half shall investigate the land; and they must not go beyond a point from which they can return home the same evening, and are not to separate [from each other]. Thus they did for a time. Leif, himself, by turns joined the exploring party, or remained behind at the house. Leif was a

A SCANDINAVAIN CROMLECH.

large and powerful man, and of a most imposing bearing,—a man of sagacity, and a very just man in all things.

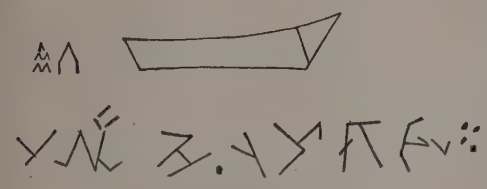
It was discovered one evening that one of their company was missing; and this proved to be Tyrker, the German. Leif was sorely troubled by this, for Tyrker had lived with Leif and his father for a long time, and had been very devoted to Leif when he was a child. Leif severely reprimanded his companions, and prepared to go in search of him, taking twelve men with him. They had proceeded but a short distance from the house, when they were met by Tyrker, whom they received most cordially. Leif observed at once that his foster-father was in lively spirits. Tyrker had a prominent forehead, restless eyes, small features, was diminutive in stature, and rather a sorry-looking individual withal, but was, nevertheless, a most capable handicraftsman. Leif addressed him, and asked, "Wherefore art thou so belated, foster-father mine, and astray from the others?" In the beginning Tyrker spoke for some time in German, rolling his eyes and grinning, and they could not understand him; but after a time he addressed them in the Northern tongue: "I did not go much further [*than you*], and yet I have something of novelty to relate. I have found vines and grapes." "Is this indeed true, foster-father?" said Leif. "Of a certainty it is true," quoth he, "for I was born where there is no lack of either grapes or vines." They slept the night through, and on the morrow Leif said to his shipmates, "We will now divide our labors, and each day will either gather grapes or cut vines and fell trees, so as to obtain a cargo of these for my ship." They acted upon this advice, and it is said that their after-boat was filled with grapes. A cargo sufficient for the ship was cut, and when the spring came they made their ship ready, and sailed away; and from its products Leif gave the land a name, and called it Wineland. They sailed out to sea, and had fair winds until they sighted Greenland, and the fells

OLD STONE RELICS OF NORSE WARFARE.

below the glaciers. Then one of the men spoke up and said, "Why do you steer the ship so much into the wind?" Leif answers: "I have my mind upon my steering, but on other matters as well. Do ye not see anything out of the common?" They replied that they saw nothing strange. "I do not know," says Leif, "whether it is a ship or a skerry that I see." Now they saw it, and said that it must be a skerry; but he was so much keener of sight than they that he was able to discern men upon the skerry. "I think it best to tack," says Leif, "so that we may draw near to them, that we may be able to render them assistance if they should stand in need of it; and, if they should not be peaceably disposed, we shall still have better command of the situation than they." They approached the skerry, and, lowering their sail, cast anchor, and launched a second small boat, which they had brought with them. Tyrker inquired who was the leader of the party. He replied that his name was Thori, and that he was a Norseman; "but what is thy name?" Leif gave his name. "Art thou a son of Eric the Red of Brattahlid?" says he. Leif responded that he was: "It is now my wish," says Leif, "to take you all into my ship, and likewise so much of your possessions as the ship will hold." This offer was accepted, and [with their ship] thus laden they held away to Ericsfirth, and sailed until they arrived at Brattahlid. Having discharged the cargo, Leif invited Thori, with his wife, Gudrid, and three others, to make their home with him, and procured quarters for the other members of the crew, both for his own and Thori's men. Leif rescued fifteen persons from the skerry. He was afterwards called Leif the Lucky. Leif had now goodly store both of property and honor. There was serious illness that winter in Thori's party, and Thori and a great number of his people died. Eric the Red also died that winter. There was now much talk about Leif's Wineland journey; and his brother, Thorvald, held that the country had not been sufficiently explored. Thereupon Leif said to Thorvald, "If it be thy will, brother, thou mayest go to Wineland with my ship; but I wish the ship first to fetch the wood which Thori had upon the skerry." And so it was done.

Now Thorvald, with the advice of his brother, Leif, prepared to make this voyage with thirty men. They put their ship in order, and sailed out to sea; and there is no account of their voyage before their arrival at Leifs-booths in Wineland. They laid up their ship there, and remained there quietly during the winter, supplying themselves with food by fishing. In the spring, however, Thorvald said that they should put their ship in order, and that a few men should take the after-boat, and proceed along the western coast, and explore [the region] thereabouts during the summer. They found it a fair, well-wooded country. It was but a short distance from the woods to the sea, and [there were] white sands, as well as great numbers of islands and shallows. They found neither dwelling of man nor lair of beast; but in one of the westerly islands they found a wooden building for the shelter of grain. They found no other trace of human handiwork; and they turned back, and arrived at Leifs-booths in the autumn. The following summer Thorvald set out toward the east with the ship, and along the northern coast. They were met by a high wind off a certain promontory, and were driven ashore there, and damaged the keel of their ship, and were compelled to remain there for a long time and repair the injury to their vessel. Then said Thorvald to his companions, "I propose that we raise the keel upon this cape, and call it Keelness"; and so they did. Then they sailed away to the eastward off the land and into the mouth of the adjoining firth and to a headland, which projected into the sea there, and which was entirely covered with woods. They found an anchorage for their ship, and put out the gangway to the land; and Thorvald and all of his companions went ashore. "It is a fair region here," said he; "and here I should like to make my home." They then returned to the ship, and discovered on the sands, in beyond the headland, three mounds: they went up to these, and saw that they were three skin canoes with three men under each. They thereupon divided their party, and succeeded in seizing all of the men but one, who escaped with his canoe. They killed the eight men, and then ascended the headland again,

and looked about them, and discovered within the firth certain hillocks, which they concluded must be habitations. They were then so overpowered with sleep that they could not keep awake, and all fell into a [heavy] slumber from which they were awakened by the sound of a cry uttered above them; and the words of the cry were these: "Awake, Thorvald, thou and all thy company, if thou wouldst save thy life; and board thy ship with all thy men, and sail with all speed from the land!" A countless number of skin canoes then advanced toward them from the inner part of the firth, whereupon Thorvald exclaimed, "We must put out the war-boards on both sides of the ship, and defend ourselves to the best of our ability, but offer little attack." This they did; and the Skrellings, after they had shot at them for a time, fled precipitately, each as best he could. Thorvald then inquired of his men whether any of them had been wounded, and they informed him that no one of them had received a wound. "I have been wounded in my arm-pit," says he. "An arrow flew in between the gunwale and the shield, below my arm. Here is the shaft, and it will bring me to my end. I counsel you now to retrace your way with the utmost speed. But me ye shall convey to that headland which seemed to me to offer so pleasant a dwelling-place: thus it may be fulfilled that the truth sprang to my lips when I expressed the wish to abide there for a time. Ye shall bury me there, and place a cross at my head, and another



OLD NORSE INSCRIPTION.

at my feet, and call it Crossness forever after." At that time Christianity had obtained in Greenland: Eric the Red died, however, before [the introduction of] Christianity.

Thorvald died; and, when they had carried out his injunctions, they took their departure and rejoined their companions, and they told each other of the experiences which had befallen them. They remained there during the winter, and gathered grapes and wood with which to freight the ship. In the following spring they returned to Greenland, and arrived with their ship in Ericsfirth, where they were able to recount great tidings to Leif.

In the mean time it had come to pass in Greenland that Thorstein of Ericsfirth had married, and had taken to wife Gudrid, Thorbrion's daughter, [she] who had been the spouse of Thori Eastman, as has been already related. Now Thorstein Ericsson, being minded to make the voyage to Wineland after the body of his brother, Thorvald, equipped the same ship, and selected a crew of twenty-five men of good size and strength, and taking with him his wife, Gudrid, when all was in readiness, they sailed out into the open ocean, and out of sight of land. They were driven hither and thither over the sea all that summer, and lost all reckoning; and at the end of the first week of winter they made the land at Lysufirth in Greenland, in the Western settlement. Thorstein set out in search of quarters for his crew, and succeeded in procuring homes for all of his shipmates; but he and his wife were unprovided for, and remained together upon the ship for two or more days. At this time Christianity was still in its infancy in Greenland. [Here follows the account of Thorstein's sickness and death in the winter.] . . . When he had thus spoken, Thorstein sank back again; and his body was laid out for burial, and borne to the ship. Thorstein, the master, faithfully performed all his promises to Gudrid. He sold his lands and live stock in the spring, and accompanied Gudrid to the ship, with all his possessions. He put the ship in order, procured a crew, and then sailed for Ericsfirth. The bodies of the dead were now buried at the church; and Gudrid then went home to Leif at Brattahlid, while Thorstein the Swarthy made a home for himself on Ericsfirth, and remained there as long as he lived, and was looked upon as a very superior man.

That same summer a ship came from Norway to Greenland. The skipper's name

was Thorfinn Karlsefni. He was a son of Thord Horsehead, and a grandson of Snorri. the son of Thord of Höfdi. Thorfinn Karlsefni, who was a very wealthy man, passed the winter at Brattahlid with Leif Ericsson. He very soon set his heart upon Gudrid, and sought her hand in marriage. She referred him to Leif for her answer, and was subsequently betrothed to him; and their marriage was celebrated that same winter. A renewed discussion arose concerning a Wineland voyage; and the folk urged Karlsefni to make the venture, Gudrid joining with the others. He determined to undertake the voyage, and assembled a company of sixty men and five women, and entered into an agreement with his shipmates that they should each share equally in all the spoils of the enterprise. They took with them all kinds of cattle, as it was their intention to settle the country, if they could. Karlsefni asked Leif for the house in Wineland; and he replied that he would lend it, but not give it. They sailed out to sea with the ship, and arrived safe and sound at Leifsbooths, and carried their hammocks ashore there. They were soon provided with an abundant and goodly supply of food; for a whale of good size and quality was driven ashore there, and they secured it, and flensed it, and had then no lack of provisions. The cattle were turned out upon the land, and the males soon became very restless and vicious: they had brought a bull with them. Karlsefni caused trees to be felled and to be hewed into timbers wherewith to load his ship, and the wood was placed upon a cliff to dry. They gathered somewhat of all of the valuable products of the land—grapes, and all kinds of game and fish, and other good things. In the summer succeeding the first winter Skrellings were discovered. A great troop of men came forth from out the woods. The cattle were hard by, and the bull began to bellow and roar with a great noise, whereat the Skrellings were frightened, and ran away with their packs, wherein were gray furs, sables, and all kinds of peltries. They fled towards Karlsefni's dwelling, and sought to effect an entrance into the house; but Karlsefni caused the doors to be defended [against them]. Neither [people] could understand the other's language. The Skrellings put down their bundles then, and loosed them, and offered their wares [for barter], and were especially anxious to exchange these for weapons; but Karlsefni forbade his men to sell their weapons, and, taking counsel with himself, he bade the women carry out milk to the Skrellings, which they no sooner saw than they wanted to buy it, and nothing else. Now the outcome of the Skrellings' trading was that they carried their wares away in their stomachs, while they left their packs and peltries behind with Karlsefni and his companions, and, having accomplished this [exchange], they went away. Now it is to be told that Karlsefni caused a strong wooden palisade to be constructed and set up around the house. It was at this time that Gudrid, Karlsefni's wife, gave birth to a male child, and the boy was called Snorri. In the early part of the second winter the Skrellings came to them again, and these were now much more numerous than before, and brought with them the same wares as at first. Then said Karlsefni to the women, "Do ye carry out now the same food which proved so profitable before, and nought else." When they saw this, they cast their packs in over the palisade. Gudrid was sitting within, in the doorway, beside the cradle of her infant son, Snorri, when a shadow fell upon the door, and a woman in a black namkirtle entered. She was short in stature, and wore a fillet about her head; her hair was of a light chestnut color, and she was pale of hue, and so big-eyed that never before had eyes so large been seen in a human skull. She went up to where Gudrid was seated, and said, "What is thy name?" "My name is Gudrid, but what is thy name?" "My name is Gudrid," says she. The housewife Gudrid motioned her with her hand to a seat beside her; but it so happened that at that very instant Gudrid heard a great crash, whereupon the woman vanished, and at the same moment one of the Skrellings, who had tried to seize their weapons, was killed by one of Karlsefni's followers. At this the Skrellings fled precipitately, leaving their garments and wares behind them; and not a soul, save Gudrid alone, beheld this woman. "Now we must needs take counsel together," says Karlsefni; "for that I believe they will visit us a third time

in great numbers, and attack us. Let us now adopt this plan. Ten of our number shall go out upon the cape, and show themselves there; while the remainder of our company shall go into the woods and hew a clearing for our cattle, when the troop approaches from the forest. We will also take our bull, and let him go in advance of us." The lie of the land was such that the proposed meeting-place had the lake upon the one side and the forest upon the other. Karlsefni's advice was now carried into execution. The Skrellings advanced to the spot which Karlsefni had selected for the encounter; and a battle was fought there, in which great numbers of the band of the Skrellings were slain. There was one man among the Skrellings, of large size and fine bearing, whom Karlsefni concluded must be their chief. One of the Skrellings picked up an axe; and, having looked at it for a time, he brandished it about one of his companions, and hewed at him, and on the instant the man fell dead. Thereupon the big man seized the axe; and, after examining it for a moment, he hurled it as far as he could out into the sea. Then they fled helter skelter into the woods, and thus their intercourse came to an end. Karlsefni and his party remained there throughout the winter; but in the spring Karlsefni announces that he is not minded to remain there longer, but will return to Greenland. They now made ready for the voyage, and carried away with them much booty in vines and grapes and peltries. They sailed out upon the high seas, and brought their ship safely to Ericsfirth, where they remained during the winter.

There was now much talk anew about a Wineland voyage, for this was reckoned both a profitable and an honorable enterprise. The same summer that Karlsefni arrived from Wineland a ship from Norway arrived in Greenland. This ship was commanded by two brothers, Helgi and Finnbogi, who passed the winter in Greenland. They were descended from an Icelandic family of the East-firths. It is now to be added that Freydis, Eric's daughter, set out from her home at Gardar, and waited upon the brothers, Helgi and Finnbogi, and invited them to sail with their vessel to Wineland, and to share with her equally all of the good things which they might succeed in obtaining there. To this they agreed, and she departed thence to visit her brother, Leif, and ask him to give her the house which he had caused to be erected in Wineland; but he made her the same answer [as that which he had given Karlsefni], saying that he would lend the house, but not give it. It was stipulated between Karlsefni and Freydis that each should have on ship-board thirty able-bodied men, besides the women; but Freydis immediately violated this compact by concealing five men more [than this number], and this the brothers did not discover before they arrived in Wineland. They now put out to sea, having agreed beforehand that they would sail in company, if possible, and, although they were not far apart from each other, the brothers arrived somewhat in advance, and carried their belongings up to Leif's house. Now, when Freydis arrived, her ship was discharged and the baggage carried up to the house, whereupon Freydis exclaimed, "Why did you carry your baggage in here?" "Since we believed," said they, "that all promises made to us would be kept." "It was to me that Leif loaned the house," says she, "and not to you." Whereupon Helgi exclaimed, "We brothers cannot hope to rival thee in wrong dealing." They thereupon carried their baggage forth, and built a hut, above the sea, on the bank of the lake, and put all in order about it; while Freydis caused wood to be felled, with which to load her ship. The winter now set in, and the brothers suggested that they should amuse themselves by playing games. This they did for a time, until the folk began to disagree, when dissensions arose between them, and the games came to an end, and the visits between the houses ceased; and thus it continued far into the winter. One morning early Freydis arose from her bed and dressed herself, but did not put on her shoes and stockings. A heavy dew had fallen, and she took her husband's cloak, and wrapped it about her, and then walked to the brothers' house, and up to the door, which had been only partly closed by one of the men, who had gone out a short time before. She pushed the door open, and stood silently in the doorway for a time. Finnbogi, who was lying on the in-

nermost side of the room, was awake, and said, "What dost thou wish here, Freydis?" She answers, "I wish thee to rise and go out with me, for I would speak with thee." He did so; and they walked to a tree, which lay close by the wall of the house, and seated themselves upon it. "How art thou pleased here?" says she. He answers, "I am well pleased with the fruitfulness of the land; but I am ill content with the breach which has come between us, for, methinks, there has been no cause for it." "It is even as thou sayest," says she, "and so it seems to me; but my errand to thee is that I wish to exchange ships with you brothers, for that ye have a larger ship than I, and I wish to depart from here." "To this I must accede," says he, "if it is thy pleasure."

NORSE-BOAT UNEARTHED AT SANDEFJORD.

Therewith they parted; and she returned home and Finnbogi to his bed. She climbed up into bed, and awakened Thorvard with her cold feet; and he asked her why she was so cold and wet. She answered with great passion: "I have been to the brothers," says she, "to try to buy their ship, for I wished to have a larger vessel; but they received my overtures so ill that they struck me and handled me very roughly; what time thou, poor wretch, wilt neither avenge my shame nor thy own; and I find, perforce, that I am no longer in Greenland. Moreover I shall part from thee unless thou wreakest vengeance for this." And now he could stand her taunts no longer, and ordered the men to rise at once and take their weapons; and this they did. And they then proceeded directly to the house of the brothers, and entered it while the folk were asleep, and seized and bound them, and led each one out when he was bound; and, as they came out, Freydis caused each one to be slain. In this wise all of the men were put to death, and only the women were left; and these no one would kill. At this Freydis exclaimed, "Hand me an axe." This was done; and she fell upon the five women, and left them dead. They returned home after this dreadful deed; and it was very evident that Freydis was well content with her work. She addressed her companions, saying, "If it be ordained for us to come again to Greenland, I shall contrive the death of any man who shall speak of these events. We must give it out that we left them living here when we came away." Early in the spring they equipped the ship which had belonged to the brothers, and freighted it with all of the products of the land which they could obtain, and which the ship would carry. Then they put out to sea, and after a prosperous voyage arrived with their ship in Ericsfirth early in the summer. Karlsefni was there, with his ship all ready to sail, and was awaiting a fair wind; and people say that a ship richer laden than that which he commanded never left Greenland.

Freydis now went to her home, since it had remained unharmed during her absence. She bestowed liberal gifts upon all of her companions, for she was anxious to screen her guilt. She now established herself at her home; but her companions were not all so close-mouthed concerning their misdeeds and wickedness that rumors did not get abroad at last. These finally reached her brother, Leif, and he thought it a most shameful story. He thereupon took three of the men, who had been of Freydis' party,

and forced them all at the same time to a confession of the affair, and their stories entirely agreed. "I have no heart," says Lief, "to punish my sister, Freydis, as she deserves, but this I predict of them, that there is little prosperity in store for their offspring." Hence it came to pass that no one from that time forward thought them worthy of aught but evil. It now remains to take up the story from the time when Karlsefni made his ship ready, and sailed out to sea. He had a successful voyage, and arrived in Norway safe and sound. He remained there during the winter, and sold his wares; and both he and his wife were received with great favor by the most distinguished men of Norway. The following spring he put his ship in order for the voyage to Iceland; and when all his preparations had been made, and his ship was lying at the wharf, awaiting favorable winds, there came to him a Southerner, a native of Bremen in the Saxonland, who wished to buy his "house-neat." "I do not wish to sell it," says he. "I will give thee half a 'mörk' in gold for it," says the Southerner. This Karlsefni thought a good offer, and accordingly closed the bargain. The Southerner went his way with the "house-neat," and Karlsefni knew not what wood it was, but it was "mösur," come from Wineland.

Karlsefni sailed away, and arrived with his ship in the north of Iceland, in Skagafirth. His vessel was beached there during the winter, and in the spring he bought Glaumbœiar-land, and made his home there, and dwelt there as long as he lived, and was a man of the greatest prominence. From him and his wife, Gudrid, a numerous and goodly lineage is descended. After Karlsefni's death Gudrid, together with her son Snorri, who was born in Wineland, took charge of the farmstead; and, when Snorri was married, Gudrid went abroad, and made a pilgrimage to the South, after which she returned again to the home of her son Snorri, who had caused a church to be built at Glaumbœr. Gudrid then took the veil and became an anchorite, and lived there the rest of her days. Snorri had a son, named Thorgeir, who was the father of Ingveld, the mother of Bishop Brand. Hallfrid was the name of the daughter of Snorri, Karlsefni's son: she was the mother of Runolf, Bishop Thorlak's father. Biorn was the name of [another] son of Karlsefni and Gudrid; he was the father of Thorunn, the mother of Bishop Biorn. Many men are descended from Karlsefni, and he has been blessed with a numerous and famous posterity; and of all men Karlsefni has given the most exact accounts of all these voyages, of which something has now been recounted.

And now comes the discovery of a stone inscribed with Norse runes which tells the amazing story of thirty Scandinavians having penetrated to the central part of present Minnesota in the year 1362.

This remarkable stone was discovered by accident about four miles northeast of Kensington, Minnesota. At the time of its discovery the inscription created some little excitement. No one at the time was, however, able to read the entire inscription, and especially were the numerals baffling. No such characters had ever before been found on any stone, and much interest was aroused. Without knowing what date the stone claimed, it was assumed that if genuine it must belong to the viking period of Leif Erikson. The language was, however, plainly not of the eleventh century, and with this superficial inquiry the stone was rejected as a forgery. Disappointed in his discovery, the owner flung the stone down before his granary as a fitting door-step, and there it ignominiously rested for many years.

The stone is a trap-rock, like many others found in the same locality, brought down in the glacial period. It is about thirty inches long, sixteen inches wide, and seven inches thick. It weighs about 230 pounds. The inscription is quite long, containing sixty-two words. It is very neatly inscribed on three-fifths of the length of the stone on two sides. The other two-fifths evidently was intended to be placed in the ground. Translated it reads as follows:

"Eight Goths (Swedes) and twenty-two Norwegians upon journey of discovery from Vinland (Nova Scotia) westward. We had camp by two rocks (in the water) one day's journey north from

this stone. We were out fishing one day. When we returned home we found ten men red with blood and dead. AVM (Ave Maria), save us from evil!

8 goter ok 22 noumen fro
opdagelsefardh fro
vinland of vest vi
hadhe laeger nedh a skjar en
dags rise norr fro dhenne sten
vi var ok fiske en dhagh aeptir
vi kom hem fan 10 man rödhe
af blodh og dhedh AVM
fraelse af illy
vi menn vi hemei at se
aeptir vore skip 14(0) dhagh rise
from dhenne öh ahr 1362

A TRANSCRIPT OF THE MIDDLE-NORSE INSCRIPTION AND ITS RENDERING IN ENGLISH CHARACTERS.

"(We) have ten men by the sea to look after our vessel forty-one (?) days' journey from this island. Year 1362."

Recently, too, there has been brought to light an interesting old document in Norway which, in all probability, gives us the name of the leader of this early expedition and much of its personnel. This is a letter of October, 1354, written by the King of Norway to Paul Knutson, a distinguished chevalier of the times, authorizing him to fit out an expedition to Greenland to fight the Eskimos there and in parts beyond. This expedition left Bergen, Norway, in 1355, but did not return until 1364. As we thus know that Paul Knutson and his party were in American waters in 1362, there is no reason for looking for any other expedition.

Vinton, Francis Laurens, military officer; born in Fort Preble, Me., June 1, 1835; graduated at West Point in 1856; entered the 1st Cavalry, but resigned and devoted himself to the science of metallurgy. At the beginning of the Civil War he was made captain in the 16th United States Infantry, and colonel of the 43d New York Volunteers, with which he served through the Peninsular Campaign; was wounded in the bat- of Fredericksburg. Became professor of mining engineering in Columbia College in 1864, from which he retired in 1877. He died in Leadville, Col., Oct. 6, 1879.

Vinton, Frederick, librarian; born in Boston, Mass., Oct. 7, 1817; graduated at Amherst College in 1837; was first assistant in 1865–73 in the Congressional Library, where he prepared six annual supplements to the *Alphabetical Catalogue of the Library of Congress* and the *Index of Subjects;* and was librarian of Princeton University from 1873 till his death, Jan. 1, 1890.

Vinton, John Adams, clergyman; born in Boston, Mass., Feb. 5, 1801; graduated at Dartmouth College in 1828, and at Andover Theological Seminary in 1831; agent of the American Society for Improving

the Condition of the Jews; chaplain of the Massachusetts State almshouse in 1859–60; and later devoted himself to genealogical researches. He contributed many articles to periodicals, and was author of *Deborah Sampson, the Female Soldier of the Revolution*, etc. He died in Winchester, Mass, Nov 13, 1877.

Viomenil, ANTOINE CHARLES DU HOUX, BARON DE, military officer; born in Fauconcourt, Vosges, France, Nov. 30, 1728. He attained the rank of major-general in the French army; and in 1780 was appointed second in command of Count de Rochambeau's troops which were sent to assist the American colonists; was promoted lieutenant-general in 1781, and given the grand cross of St Louis for services at the siege of Yorktown. After the war he was governor of La Rochelle, in 1783–89. He died in Paris, Nov. 9, 1782.

His brother, CHARLES JOSEPH HYACINTHE DU HOUX, MARQUIS DE VIOMENIL; born in the castle of Ruppes, Vosges, Aug. 22, 1734; attained the rank of major-general in the French army; accompanied Count de Rochambeau to the United States as commander of the French artillery, and took a prominent part in the siege of Yorktown, for which he was granted a pension of 5,000 francs. He died in Paris, March 5, 1827.

VIRGINIA, COLONY OF

Virginia, COLONY OF, the name given to an undefined territory in America (of which Roanoke Island, discovered in 1584, was a part) in compliment to the unmarried Queen, or because of its virgin soil. It was afterwards defined as extending from lat. 34° to 45° N., and was divided into north and south Virginia. The northern part was afterwards called NEW ENGLAND (*q. v.*). The spirit of adventure and desire for colonization were prevalent in England at the beginning of the seventeenth century, and circumstances there were favorable to such undertakings, for there was plenty of material for colonies, such as it was. Soon after the accession of James I., war between England and France ceased, and there were many restless soldiers out of employment—so restless that social order was in danger. There was also a class of ruined and desperate spendthrifts, ready to do anything to retrieve their fortunes. Such were the men who stood ready to go to America when Ferdinando Gorges, Bartholomew Gosnold, Chief-Justice Popham, Richard Hakluyt, Capt. John Smith, and others devised a new scheme for settling Virginia.

The timid King, glad to perceive a new field open for the restless spirits of his realm, granted a liberal patent to a company of "noblemen, gentlemen, and merchants," chiefly of London, to plant settlements in America, between lat. 34° and 38° N., and westward 100 miles from the sea. A similar charter was granted to another company to settle between lat. 41° and 45° N. The space of about 200 miles between the two territories was a broad boundary-line, upon which neither party was to plant a settlement. In December, 1606, the London Company sent three ships, under Capt. Christopher Newport, with 105 colonists, to make a settlement on ROANOKE ISLAND (*q. v.*). They took

FIRST SETTLEMENTS ON THE CHESAPEAKE AND DELAWARE.

the long southern route, by way of the West Indies, and when they approached the coast of North Carolina a tempest drove them farther north into Chesapeake

EARLY SETTLERS.

Bay, where they found good anchorage. The principal passengers were Gosnold, Edward M. Wingfield, Captain Smith, and Rev. Robert Hunt. The capes at the entrance to Chesapeake Bay Newport named Charles and Henry, in compliment to the King's two sons.

Landing and resting at a pleasant point of land between the mouths of the York and James rivers, he named it Point Comfort, and, sailing up the latter stream 50 miles, the colonists landed on the left bank, May 13, 1607, and there founded a settlement and built a village, which they named Jamestown, in compliment to the King. They gave the name of James to the river. On the voyage, Captain Smith, the most notable man among them (see SMITH, JOHN), had excited the jealousy and suspicion of his fellow-passengers, and he was placed in confinement on suspicion that he intended to usurp the government of the colony. It was not known who had been appointed rulers, for the silly King had placed the names of the colonial council in a sealed box, to be opened on their arrival. It was found that Smith was one of the council, and he was released. Wingfield was chosen president. Smith and others ascended the river in small boats to the falls at Richmond, and visited the Indian emperor POWHATAN (*q. v.*), who resided a mile below.

Early in June Newport returned to England for supplies and more emigrants. The supplies which they brought had been spoiled in the long voyage, and the Indians around them appeared hostile. The marshes sent up poisonous vapors, and before the end of summer Gosnold and fully one-half of the adventurers died of fever and famine. President Wingfield lived on the choicest stores, and was preparing to escape to the West Indies in a pinnace left by Newport, when his treachery was discovered, and a man equally notorious, named Radcliffe, was put in his place. He, too, was soon dismissed, when Captain Smith was happily chosen to rule the colony. He soon restored order, won the respect of the Indians, compelled them to bring food to Jamestown until wild-fowl became plentiful in

the autumn, and the harvest of maize or Indian corn was gathered by the barbarians. Smith and a few companions explored the Chickahominy River, where he was captured and condemned to die, but was saved by the King's daughter. See POCAHONTAS.

Everything was in disorder on his return from the forest, and only forty men of the colony were living, who were on the point of escaping to the West Indies. Newport returned with supplies and 120 emigrants early in 1608. They were no better than the first. There were several unskilful goldsmiths, and most of the colonists became gold-seekers and neglected the soil. There "was no talk, no hope, no work, but dig gold, work [earth supposed to be] gold, refine gold, and load gold." Some glittering earth had been mistaken for gold, and Newport had loaded his ship with the worthless soil. Smith implored the settlers to plough and sow. They refused, and, leaving Jamestown in disgust, he explored Chesapeake Bay and its tributary streams in an open boat. In the course of three months he travelled 1,000 miles and made a rude map of the country. Newport arrived at Jamestown soon after Smith's return in September, with seventy more emigrants, among them two women, the first Europeans of their sex seen in Virginia proper. See DARE, VIRGINIA.

These emigrants were no better than the first, and Smith entreated the company to send over farmers and mechanics; but at the end of two years, when the settlement numbered 200 strong men, there were only forty acres of land under cultivation. In 1609 the company obtained a new charter, which made the settlers vassals of the council of Virginia and extended the territory to the head of Chesapeake Bay. Lord De la Warr (Delaware) was appointed governor of Virginia; Sir Thomas Gates, deputy-governor; Sir George Somers, admiral; Christopher Newport, vice-admiral, and Sir Thomas Dale, high-marshal, all for life. Nine vessels, with 500 emigrants, including twenty women and children, sailed for Jamestown in June, 1609. Gates and Somers embarked with Newport, and the three were to govern Virginia until the arrival of Lord Delaware. A hurricane dispersed the fleet, and the vessel containing these joint rulers or commissioners was wrecked on one of the Bermuda Islands. Seven vessels reached Jamestown. The new-comers were, if possible, more profligate than the first—dissolute scions of wealthy families, who "left their country for their country's good."

Smith continued to administer the government until an accident compelled him to return to England in the fall of 1609. Then the colonists gave themselves up to every irregularity; the Indians withheld supplies; famine ensued, and the winter and spring of 1610 were long remembered as the starving time. The Indians prepared to exterminate the English, but they were spared by a timely warning from

COLONIAL SEAL OF VIRGINIA.

Pocahontas. Six months after Smith left, the settlement of 500 souls was reduced to sixty. The three commissioners reached Jamestown in June, 1610, and Gates determined to leave for Newfoundland with

CULTIVATION OF TOBACCO IN COLONIAL VIRGINIA.

the famished settlers, and distribute them among the settlers there. In four pinnaces they departed, and were met at Point Comfort by Lord Delaware, with provisions and emigrants. Failing health compelled him to return to England in March, 1611, and he was succeeded by a deputy, Sir Thomas Dale, who arrived with 300 settlers and some cattle. Sir Thomas Gates came with 350 more colonists in September following, and superseded Dale. These were a far better class than any who had arrived, and there were then 1,000 Englishmen in Virginia. New settlements were planted at Dutch Gap and at Bermuda Hundred at the mouth of the Appomattox. In 1616 Deputy-Governor Gates was succeeded by Samuel Argall, but his course was so bad that Lord Delaware sailed from England to resume the government of Virginia, but died on the passage, at the mouth of the bay that bears his name.

George Yeardley was appointed governor in 1617, and he summoned two delegates from each of seven corporations or boroughs to assemble at Jamestown, July 30. These delegates formed a representative assembly, the first ever held on the Western Continent. A seal for the colony was adopted by the company. It was made of beeswax, covered with very thin paper, and stamped on both sides with appropriate devices. On one side were the royal arms of Great Britain, and on the other an effigy of the reigning monarch, with the sentence in Latin "Seal of the Province of Virginia." Kneeling before the monarch was an Indian presenting a bundle of tobacco, the chief product of the country. In the seal was a figure representing Queen Anne. The original from which the engraving on preceding page was copied was somewhat defaced. It was sent to the colony almost immediately after the beginning of Queen Anne's reign, with instructions from the secretary of the privy council to break up the seal of her predecessor, William III., and send the fragments to England.

The same year 1,200 colonists arrived, among whom were ninety "respectable young women," to become the wives of planters, who were purchased at a profit to the company and were paid for in tobacco, then become a profitable agricultural product. Within two years 150 respectable young women were sent to Virginia for the same purpose. Homes and families appeared, and so the foundation of the commonwealth of Virginia was laid. Already the Indians had been made friendly by the marriage of Pocahontas to an Englishman. The tribe of gold-seekers had disappeared, and the future of Virginia appeared bright. The King injured the colony by sending over 100 convicts from English prisons, in 1619, to be sold as servants to the planters, and this system was pursued for 100 years, in defiance of the protests of the settlers. The

LANDING OF NEGRO SLAVES AT JAMESTOWN

same year the colonists bought twenty negro slaves of a Dutch trader, and so slavery was introduced (see SLAVERY). On July 24, 1621, the London Company granted the colonists a written constitution for their government, which provided for the appointment of a governor and council by the company, and a representative assembly, to consist of two burgesses or representatives from each borough, to be chosen by the people and clothed with full legislative power in connection with the council. This body formed the General Assembly. Sir Francis Wyatt was appointed governor, and brought the constitution with him.

The first laws of the commonwealth were thirty-five in number, concisely expressed, repealed all former laws, and clearly showed the condition of the colony. The first acts related to the Church. They provided that in every plantation there should be a room or house "for the worship of God, sequestered and set apart for that purpose, and not to be for any temporal use whatsoever"; also a place of burial "sequestered and paled in." Absence from public worship "without allowable excuse" incurred the forfeiture of a pound of tobacco, or 50 lbs. if the absence were persisted in for a month. Divine public service was to be in conformity to the canons of the Church of England. In addition to the Church festivals, March 22 (O. S.) was to be annually observed in commemoration of the escape of the colony from destruction by the Indians. No minister was allowed to be absent from his parish more than two months in a year, under pain of forfeiting one-half of his salary, or the whole of it, and his spiritual charge, if absent four months. He who disparaged a minister without proof was to be fined 500 lbs. of tobacco, and to beg the minister's pardon publicly before the congregation. The minister's salary was to be paid out of the first-gathered and best tobacco and corn; and no man was to dispose of his tobacco before paying his church-dues, under pain of forfeiting double. Drunkenness and swearing were made punishable offences.

VIRGINIA MOUNTAINEERS IN COLONIAL TIMES.

The levy and expenditure were to be made by the Assembly only; the governor might not draw the inhabitants from their private employments to do his work; the whole council had to consent to the levy of men for the public service; older settlers, who came before Sir Thomas Gates (1611), "and their posterity" were to be exempt from personal military service; the burgesses were not to be molested in going to, coming from, or during the sessions of the Assembly; every private planter's lands were to be surveyed and their bounds recorded; monthly courts were to be held by special commissioners at Elizabeth City, at the mouth of the James, and at Charles City, for the accommodation of more distant plantations; the price of corn was to be unrestricted; in every parish was to be a public granary, to which each planter was to bring yearly a bushel of corn to be disposed of for public use by a vote of the freemen, and if not disposed of to be returned to the owner; every settler was to be compelled to cultivate corn enough for his family; all trade in corn with the Indians was prohibited; every freeman was to fence in a garden of a quarter of an acre for the planting of grape-vines, roots, herbs, and mulberry-trees; inspectors, or "censors," of tobacco were to be appointed; ships were to break bulk only at James City; weights and measures were to be sealed; every house was to be palisaded for defence against the Indians, and no man was to go to work in the fields without being armed, nor to leave his house exposed to attack; no powder was to be spent unnecessarily, and each plantation was to be furnished with arms. Persons of "quality" who were delinquent might not undergo corporal punishment like "common" people, but might be imprisoned and fined. Any person wounded in the military service was to be cured at the public charge, and if permanently lamed was to have a maintenance according to his "quality"; and 10 lbs. of tobacco were to be levied on each male colonist to pay the expenses of the war. This war was that with the Indians after the massacre in 1622, and much of the legislation had reference to it, such as an order for the inhabitants, at the beginning of July, 1624, to fall upon the adjoining savages "as they did last year."

BERKELEY, VIRGINIA, NEAR HARRISON'S LANDING.

In 1624, of the 9,000 persons who had been sent to Virginia, only a little more than 2,000 remained. The same year the London Company was dissolved by a writ of *quo warranto*, and Virginia became a royal province. George Yeardly was appointed governor, with twelve councillors. He died in 1627, and was succeeded by Sir John Harvey, a haughty and unpopular ruler. Harvey was deposed by the Virginians in 1635, but was reinstated by Charles I., and ruled until 1639. Sir William Berkeley became governor in 1641, at the beginning of the civil war in England, and being a thorough loyalist, soon

came in contact with the republican Parliament. The colonists, also, remained loyal, and invited the son of the beheaded King to come and reign over them. Cromwell sent commissioners and a fleet to Virginia. A compromise with the loyalists was effected. Berkeley gave way to Richard Bennett, one of the commissioners, who became governor. But when Charles II. was restored, Berkeley, who had not left Virginia, was reinstated; the laws of the colony were revived; restrictive revenue laws were enforced; the Church of England—disestablished in Virginia—was re-established, and severe legislative acts against Non-conformists were passed. Berkeley proclaimed Charles II. "King of England, Scotland, Ireland, and Virginia," and ruled with vigor. Under Berkeley, the colonists had become discontented, and in 1676 they broke out into open rebellion, led by a wealthy and enterprising young lawyer named NATHANIEL BACON (*q. v.*).

Charles II. had given a patent for Virginia (1673) to two of his rapacious courtiers (Arlington and Culpeper), and in 1677 the latter superseded Berkeley as governor. He arrived in Virginia in 1680, and his rapacity and profligacy soon so disgusted the people that they were on the verge of rebellion, when the King, offended at him, revoked his grant and his commission. He was succeeded by an equally unpopular governor, Lord Howard of Effingham, and the people were again stirred to revolt; but the death of the King and other events in England made them wait for hoped-for relief. The Stuarts were driven from the throne forever in 1688, and there was a change for the better in the colonies. In 1699 Williamsburg was founded and made the capital of Virginia, where the General Assembly met in 1700. The code was revised for the fifth time in 1705, when by it slaves were declared real estate, and this law continued until 1776. Hostilities with the French broke out in 1754, they having built a line of military posts along the western slope of the Alleghany Mountains, in the rear of Virginia, and at the head-waters of the Ohio. To one of these posts young George Washington was sent on a diplomatic mission towards the close of 1753, by Dinwiddie, governor of Virginia. That was Washington's first appearance in public service. He performed the duty with so much skill and prudence that he was placed at the head of a military force the next year, and fought the French at and near Fort Necessity. During the French and Indian War that ensued, Virginia bore her share; and when England began to press her taxation schemes in relation to the colonies, the Virginia House of Burgesses took a patriotic stand in opposition, under the leadership of PATRICK HENRY (*q. v.*). From that time until the breaking out of the Revolutionary War the Virginians were conspicuous in maintaining the rights of the colonies.

On March 20, 1775, a convention of delgates from the several counties and corporations of Virginia met for the first time. They assembled in St. John's Church in Richmond. Among the conspicuous members of the convention were Washington and Patrick Henry. Peyton Randolph was chosen president and John Tazewell clerk. A large portion of the members yearned for reconciliation with Great Britain, while others saw no ground for hope that the mother-country would be just. Among the latter was Patrick Henry. His judgment was too sound to be misled by mere appearances of justice, in which others trusted. The convention expressed its unqualified approbation of the proceedings of the Continental Congress, and warmly thanked their delegates for the part they had taken in it. They thanked the Assembly of the island of Jamaica for a sympathizing document, and then proceeded to consider resolutions that the colony should be instantly put in a state of defence by an immediate organization of the militia.

This meant resistance, and the resolutions alarmed the more timid, who opposed the measure as rash and almost impious. Deceived by a show of justice on the part of Great Britain, they urged delay, for it was evident that the numerous friends of the colonists in England, together with the manufacturing interest, would soon bring about an accommodation. This show of timidity and temporizing roused the fire of patriotism in the bosom of Henry, and he made an impassioned speech, which electrified all hear-

ers and has become in our history an admired specimen of oratory. The resolutions to prepare for defence were passed,

ST. JOHN'S CHURCH.

and Patrick Henry, Richard Henry Lee, Robert C. Nicholas, Benjamin Harrison, Lemuel Riddick, George Washington, Adam Stephen, Andrew Lewis, William Christian, Edmund Pendleton, Thomas Jefferson, and Isaac Lane were appointed a commitee to prepare a plan accordingly. Their plan for embodying the militia was adopted, and Virginia prepared herself for the conflict. Provision was made for the enrolment of a company of volunteers in each county. The convention reappointed the Virginia delegates to seats in the second Continental Congress, adding Thomas Jefferson, "in case of the non-attendance of Peyton Randolph." Henry had said, prophetically, in his speech, "The next gale that comes from the North will bring to our ears the clash of arms!" This prophecy was speedily fulfilled by the clash of arms at Lexington. His bold proceedings and utterances in this convention caused his name to be presented to the British government in a bill of attainder, with those of Randolph, Jefferson, the two Adamses, and Hancock.

Governor Dunmore soon called a meeting of the Virginia Assembly to consider a conciliatory proposition made by Lord North. They rejected it, and in his anger he fulminated proclamations against Henry and the committees of vigilance which were formed in every county in Virginia. He declared that, should one of his officers be molested in the performance of his duty, he would raise the royal standard, proclaim freedom to the slaves, and arm them against their masters. He sent his family (May 4) on board the British man-of-war *Fowey*, in the York River, fortified his "palace," and secretly placed powder under the magazine at Williamsburg, with the evident intention of blowing it up should occasion seem to require it. The discovery of this "gunpowder plot" greatly irritated the people. A rumor came (June 7) that armed marines were on their way from the *Fowey* to assist Dunmore to enforce the laws. The people flew to arms, and the governor, alarmed, took refuge on the man-of-war. He was the first of the royal governors who abdicated government at the beginning of the Revolution. From the *Fowey* Dunmore sent messages, addresses, and letters to the burgesses in session at Williamsburg, and received communications from them in return. When all bills passed were ready for the governor's signature, he was invited to his capitol to sign them. He declined, and demanded that they should present the papers at his residence on shipboard. Instead of this,

the burgesses delegated their powers to a permanent committee and adjourned. So ended royal rule in Virginia.

In May, 1776, a convention of 130 delegates assembled at Williamsburg. After having finished current business, the convention resolved itself into a committee of the whole on the state of the colony. On May 15 resolutions which had been drafted by Edmund Pendleton were unanimously agreed to, 112 members being present. The preamble enumerated their chief grievances, and said, "We have no alternative left but an abject submission or a total separation." Then they decreed that their "delegates in Congress be instructed to propose to that body to declare the united colonies free and independent States, absolved from all allegiance or dependence upon the crown or Parliament of Great Britain; and that they give the assent of this colony to such declaration, and to measures for forming foreign alliances and a confederation of the colonies; provided that the power of forming government for, and the regulation of the internal concerns of each colony be left to the respective colonial legislatures."

VIRGINIA

Virginia (named in honor of Elizabeth, the Virgin Queen of England), a State in the South Atlantic Division of the North American Union; one of the original thirteen and the tenth to ratify the federal Constitution; bounded on the n. e. and e. by Maryland, the District of Columbia, and the Atlantic Ocean; s. by North Carolina and Tennessee; and w. and n. w. by Kentucky and West Virginia; area 42,627 square miles, of which 2,365 are water surface; extreme breadth, e. to w., 425 miles; extreme length, n. to s., 205 miles; number of counties and independent cities, 119; capital, Richmond; popular name, "the Old Dominion" and "the Mother of Presidents"; State mottoes, *Sic semper tyrannis*, "Ever so to tyrants," and *Perseverando*, "Perseverance"; ratified the federal Constitution, June 26, 1788; seceded, April 17, 1861; readmitted into the Union, Jan. 26, 1870; population (1910), 2,061,612.

General Statistics.—Virginia is noted for its colonial, Revolutionary, and Civil War history; its great tobacco interests; its oyster and various food-fish catches; its many points of scenic attraction; and as the birthplace of Presidents Washington, Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, Harrison (William Henry), Tyler, and Taylor. There are over 183,700 farms, comprising 9,861,000 improved acres, representing in lands, buildings, and implements a value of $548,997,000, an increase in the value of lands and buildings of 96 per cent. in ten years. Ordinary farm crops have a value of over $80,051,000, corn ($35,500,000), tobacco ($12,169,000), forage ($10,265,000), wheat ($9,871,000), and peanuts ($4,240,000) leading. The highest single-year production in the cotton-growing industry (1910) showed 16,095 bales of fibre, valued at $1,040,000, and 7,000 tons of seed, valued at $220,000. Domestic animals, poultry, and bees have a value of $74,825,000, an increase of 78 per cent. in ten years, horses ($34,825,500), cattle ($21,104,000), mules, poultry, and sheep leading.

Manufacturing industries are represented by 5,685 factory-system establishments, employing $216,392,000 capital and 105,676 wage-earners; paying $47,255,000 for salaries and wages and $125,583,000 for materials; and yielding products valued at $219,794,000. These figures show an increase in ten years, in establishments, from 3,186; capital, from $92,299,589; wage-earners, from 66,223; salaries and wages, from $23,903,498; cost of materials, from $59,359,484; and value of products, from $108,644,150. The principal products are chewing and smoking tobacco, cigars and cigarettes, flour and grist, lumber, cotton, woollen, hosiery, and knit goods, steam-railroad cars, leather, iron and steel, fertilizers, and ships. The collection of internal revenue on taxable manufactures, chiefly tobacco, spirits, and beer, has exceeded $6,035,000 in a single year. In the State's record year in mineral production (1906) the entire output had a value of $24,650,814, pig-iron ($8,591,000), coal ($3,611,659), clay ($1,966,078), and iron ores ($1,579,817) leading.

General business interests are served by 125 national banks, having $15,557,030 capital, and resources of $125,686,982; 216 State banks, with $8,786,182 capital and $58,695,767 resources; twenty-four stock savings banks, with $1,020,443 capital and $10,350,485 resources; and nine loan and trust companies, with $2,014,760 capital and $4,755,976 resources. Richmond ranks twenty-seventh among the clearing-house cities of the country, with exchanges totalling $385,865,200 in a single year. The share of the State in the commerce of the country in the year ending June 30, 1911, was $20,289,206, at the ports of Newport News, Norfolk, and Portsmouth, Petersburg, and Richmond, about 75 per cent. of which was exports of local merchandise.

Religious interests are promoted by 6,639 organizations of white congregations, having 6,480 church edifices, 793,546 communicants or members, 430,452 Sunday-school scholars, and church property valued at $19,699,041, the strongest denominations numerically being the Baptist, Methodist Episcopal, Presbyterian, Roman Catholic, Protestant Episcopal, Disciples, Lutheran, Dunkers, and Christian; and by 1,983 organizations of colored congregations, having 1,916 churches, 307,374 members, and church property valued at $3,562,930, the strongest denominations being the Baptist and Methodist Episcopal. The Roman Catholic Church has a bishop at Richmond; the Protestant Episcopal, at Richmond (two), Norfolk, and Lynchburg; and the Methodist Episcopal South, at Emory.

The school age is 7–20; enrolment in the public schools, white 276,601; colored, 117,471; average daily attendance, white, 185,057; colored, 72,667; value of public-school property, $7,192,575; total revenue, $4,156,390; total expenditure, $4,393,562; estimated number of pupils in private and parochial schools, 19,300. For the higher education of men and both sexes there are fifteen universities and colleges, and for women only, eight. There are also four schools of theology, three of law, and two each of medicine, dentistry, and pharmacy; four normal schools; twelve manual training schools; twenty-five secondary schools for the colored race; and 256 public high schools. The State maintains separate industrial reform schools for whites and colored, separate institutions for the deaf and blind, and an institution for the feeble-minded.

The leading higher institutions are the University of Virginia, at University Station; Virginia Polytechnic Institute (State), Blacksburg; College of William and Mary (State), Williamsburg; Emory and Henry College (M. E. S.), Emory; Hampden-Sidney College (Presb.), Hampden-Sidney Station; Richmond College (Bapt.); Randolph-Macon College (M. E. S.), Ashland; Virginia Military Institute (State), Lexington; Washington and Lee University (non-sect.), Lexington; Roanoke College (Luth.), Salem; colleges for women, Martha Washington College (M. E. S.), Abingdon; Stonewall Jackson Institute (Presb.), Abingdon; Virginia Institute (Bapt.), Bristol; Roanoke College (Bapt.), Danville; Hollins Institute (non-sect.); Marion College (Luth.), Virginia Woman's College (non-sect.), Roanoke; and institutions for the colored race, Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute (non-sect.), Hampton; St. Paul Normal and Industrial School (P. E.), Laurenceville; Virginia Union University (Bapt.), Richmond; Virginia Normal and Industrial Institute (non-sect.), Petersburg; and Norfolk Mission College (Unit. Presb.).

Government.—The first code of laws for what is now the State of Virginia was a charter granted by King James I. of England, April 10, 1606, to the London Company; a second charter was issued May 23, 1609; a third in 1612; and the latter was annulled by the King's Bench, June 16, 1624. The first colonial seal was adopted in 1617; the first representative legislature in America assembled at Jamestown, July 30, 1619; a provisional government was organized, with Richard Bennett as governor, April 30, 1652; and the territory was assigned by Charles II. to Lords Arlington and Culpeper for thirty-one years at an annual rental of forty shillings, in 1673. A State constitution was adopted and the colonial government ceased, June 29, 1776. In 1861 a State convention first rejected an ordinance of secession (April 4), then adopted one (17th); the State became incorporated in the Confederacy (May 6);

and its troops were transferred to the Confederate government (June 8). In 1869 the State ratified the Fourteenth and Fifteenth amendments to the federal Constitution, and adopted a new constitution; and in 1902 the present constitution was adopted.

The executive authority is vested in a governor (annual salary, $5,000), lieutenant-governor, secretary of the commonwealth, first and second auditors, treasurer, superintendent of instruction, and commissioners of agriculture and insurance—official terms, four years. The legislature consists of a senate of forty members and a house of representatives of 100 members—terms of senators, four years; of representatives, two years; salary of each, $500 per annum; sessions, biennial; limit, sixty days, but sessions may be extended not exceeding thirty days by a three-fifths vote of the members of each house. The chief judicial authority is a Supreme Court of Appeals, comprising a president and four justices. In 1911 the State had a total debt of $22,266,992, besides school and college debts amounting to $2,467,605, which are debts owing to educational institutions in nontransferable certificates, none of which is in the hands of the public. The assessed valuations aggregated $606,848,139; State-tax rate, $3.50 per $1,000. For the debt claims of Virginia against West Virginia, see HISTORY.

GOVERNORS UNDER THE COLONIAL GOVERNMENT.

PRESIDENTS OF THE COUNCIL.

Name.	Term.
Edward Maria Wingfield	1607
John Ratcliffe	1607 to 1608
Capt. John Smith	1608 " 1610
George Percy	1610 " 1611

GOVERNORS.

Lord Delaware	1611
Sir Thomas Dale	1611
Sir Thomas Gates	1611 to 1614
Sir Thomas Dale	1614 " 1616
George Yeardley	1616 " 1617
Samuel Argall	1617 " 1619
Sir George Yeardley	1619 " 1621
Sir Francis Wyatt	1621 " 1626
Sir George Yeardley	1626 " 1627
Francis West	1627 " 1629
John Potts	1629
John Harvey	1629 to 1635
John West	1635 " 1636
John Harvey	1636 " 1639
Sir Francis Wyatt	1639 " 1641
Sir William Berkeley	1641 " 1652
Richard Bennett	1652 " 1655
Edward Digges	1655 " 1656
Samuel Matthews	1656 " 1660
Sir William Berkeley	1660 " 1661
Col. Francis Moryson	1661 " 1663

GOVERNORS UNDER THE COLONIAL GOVERNMENT—*Continued.*

Sir William Berkeley	1663 to 1677
Sir Herbert Jeffreys	1677 " 1678
Sir Henry Chicheley	1678 " 1680
Lord Culpeper	1680 " 1684
Lord Howard of Effingham	1684 " 1688
Nathaniel Bacon	1688 " 1690
Francis Nicholson	1690 " 1692
Sir Edmund Andros	1692 " 1698
Francis Nicholson	1698 " 1705
Edward Nott	1705 " 1706
Edmund Jennings	1706 " 1710
Alexander Spotswood	1710 " 1722
Hugh Drysdale	1722 " 1726
William Gouch	1726 " 1749
Thomas Lee and Lewis Burwell	1749 " 1752
Robert Dinwiddie	1752 " 1758
Francis Fauquier	1758 " 1768
Lord Boutetourt	1768 " 1770
William Nelson	1770 " 1772
Lord Dunmore	1772 " 1775
Provisional convention from July 17, 1775, to June 12, 1776.	

GOVERNORS UNDER THE CONTINENTAL CONGRESS AND THE CONSTITUTION.

Name.	Term.
Patrick Henry	1776 to 1779
Thomas Jefferson	1779 " 1781
Thomas Nelson	1781
Benjamin Harrison	1781 to 1784
Patrick Henry	1784 " 1786
Edmund Randolph	1786 " 1788
Beverly Randolph	1788 " 1791
Henry Lee	1791 " 1794
Robert Brooke	1794 " 1796
James Wood	1796 " 1799
James Monroe	1799 " 1802
John Page	1802 " 1805
William H. Cabell	1805 " 1808
John Tyler	1808 " 1811
James Monroe	1811
George W. Smith	1811 to 1812
James Barbour	1812 " 1814
Wilson C. Nicholas	1814 " 1816
James P. Preston	1816 " 1819
Thomas M. Randolph	1819 " 1822
James Pleasants	1822 " 1825
John Tyler	1825 " 1826
William B. Giles	1826 " 1829
John Floyd	1829 " 1833
Littleton W. Tazewell	1833 " 1836
Wyndham Robertson	1836 " 1837
David Campbell	1837 " 1840
Thomas W. Gilmer	1840 " 1841
John Rutherford	1841 " 1842
John M. Gregory	1842 " 1843
James McDowell	1843 " 1846
William Smith	1846 " 1849
John B. Floyd	1849 " 1851
John Johnson	1851 " 1852
Joseph Johnson	1852 " 1856
Henry A. Wise	1856 " 1860
John Letcher	1860 " 1864
William Smith	1864 " 1865
Francis A. Pierpont	1865 " 1867
Henry A. Wells	1867 " 1869
Gilbert C. Walker	1869 " 1874
James L. Kemper	1874 " 1878
F. W. M. Holliday	1878 " 1882
W. E. Cameron	1882 " 1886
Fitz-Hugh Lee	1886 " 1890
Philip W. McKinney	1890 " 1894
Charles T. O'Ferrall	1894 " 1898
J. Hoge Tyler	1898 " 1902
A. J. Montague	1902 " 1906
Claude A. Swanson	1906 " 1910
William H. Mann	1910 " ——

Virginia ranked first in population among the States and Territories under the censuses of 1790, 1800, and 1810; second in 1820; third in 1830; fourth in 1840 and 1850; fifth in 1860; tenth in 1870; fourteenth in 1880; fifteenth in 1890; seventeenth in 1900; and twentieth in 1910.

UNITED STATES SENATORS.

Name.	No. of Cong.	Term.
Richard Henry Lee	1st to 2d	1789 to 1792
William Grayson	1st	1789 " 1790
John Walker	1st	1790
James Monroe	1st to 4th	1790 to 1795
John Taylor	2d " 3d	1792 " 1794
Henry Tazewell	3d " 5th	1794 " 1799
S. Thomson Mason	4th " 8th	1795 " 1803
Wilson Cary Nicholas	6th " 8th	1800 " 1804
Andrew Moore	8th " 11th	1804 " 1809
William B. Giles	8th " 14th	1814 " 1815
John Taylor	8th	1803
Abraham B. Venable	8th	1803 to 1804
Richard Brent	11th to 13th	1809 " 1814
James Barbour	13th " 19th	1815 " 1825
Armistead T. Mason	14th	1816 " 1817
John W. Eppes	15th	1817 " 1819
James Pleasants	16th to 17th	1819 " 1822
John Taylor	17th " 18th	1822 " 1824
Littleton W. Tazewell	18th " 22d	1824 " 1832
John Randolph	19th " 20th	1825 " 1827
John Tyler	20th " 24th	1827 " 1836
William C. Rives	22d " 23d	1833 " 1834
Benjamin W. Leigh	23d " 24th	1834 " 1836
Richard E. Parker	24th " 25th	1836 " 1837
William C. Rives	24th " 29th	1836 " 1845
William H. Roane	25th " 27th	1837 " 1841
William S. Archer	27th " 30th	1841 " 1847
Isaac S. Pennybacker	29th " 30th	1845 " 1847
James M. Mason	29th " 37th	1847 " 1861
Robert M. T. Hunter	30th " 37th	1847 " 1861
John S. Carlile	37th	1861
Waiteman T. Willey	37th	1861 to 1863
John J. Bowden	38th	1863 " 1864
39th and 40th Congresses vacant.		
John W. Johnston	41st	1870 to 1883
John F. Lewis	41st to 44th	1870 " 1875
Robert E. Withers	44th " 47th	1875 " 1881
William Mahone	47th " 50th	1881 " 1887
H. H. Riddleberger	48th " 51st	1883 " 1889
John W. Daniel	50th " 61st	1887 " 1910
John S. Barbour	51st " 52d	1889 " 1892
Eppa Hunton	52d " 54th	1892 " 1895
Thomas S. Martin	54th " ——	1895 " ——
Claude A. Swanson	61st " ——	1910 " ——

In the apportionment of representation in Congress, Virginia was given ten members under the Constitution, and under the censuses of 1880, 1890, 1900, and 1910; nineteen in 1790; twenty-two in 1800 and 1820; twenty-three in 1810; twenty-one in 1830; fifteen in 1840; thirteen in 1850; eleven in 1860; and nine in 1870.

History.—The early period history has been graphically narrated under VIRGINIA, COLONY OF (*q. v.*), which leads important events up to the Revolutionary War.

While the foremost citizen of Virginia was leading the army fighting for independence, and was the most earnest advocate for a national bond of all the States, the representatives of her people, in her legislature, always opposed the measures that would make the States one union. Her legislature separately ratified (June 2, 1779) the treaty with France, and asserted in its fullest degree the absolute sovereignty of the separate States, and when Congress received petitions concerning lands in the Ohio country, the Virginia Assembly remonstrated against any action in the premises by that body, because it would "be a dangerous precedent, which might hereafter subvert the sovereignty and government of any one or more of the United States, and establish in Congress a power which, in process of time, must degenerate into an intolerable despotism." Patrick Henry, too, vehemently condemned the phraseology of the preamble to the national Constitution —"We, the people"—arguing that it should have been "We, the States." So, also, did George Mason. So jealous of their "sovereignty" were the States in general that Congress, at the beginning of 1780, finding itself utterly helpless, threw everything upon the States. Washington deeply deplored this state of things. "Certain I am," he wrote to Joseph Jones, a delegate from Virginia, in May, "unless Congress is vested with powers by the several States competent to the great purposes of war, or assume them as matter of right, and they and the States respectively act with more energy than they have hitherto done, our cause is lost. . . . I see one head gradually changing into thirteen. I see one army branching into thirteen, which, instead of looking up to Congress as the supreme controlling power, are considering themselves as dependent on their several States." In June, General Greene wrote: "The Congress have lost their influence. I have for a long time seen the necessity of some new plan of civil government. Unless there is some control over the States by the Congress, we shall soon be like a broken band."

The marauding expedition of Arnold up the James River, early in 1781, was fol-

lowed by a more formidable invasion in the latter part of March. General Phillips, of Burgoyne's army, who had been exchanged for Lincoln, joined Arnold at Portsmouth, with 2,000 troops from New York, and took the chief command. They went up the James and Appomattox rivers, took Petersburg (April 25), and destroyed 4,000 hogsheads of tobacco, which had been collected there for shipment to France on account of the Congress. There were virtually no troops in Virginia to oppose this invasion, for all that were really fit for service had been sent to the army of Greene, in the Carolinas. Steuben had about 500 half-starved and naked troops, whom he was training for recruits. These were mostly without arms, and retreated before Phillips to Richmond. Lafayette, who had halted at Annapolis, now hurried forward, and, by a forced march of 200 miles, reached Richmond twelve hours before Phillips and Arnold appeared on the opposite side of the river. Joined by Steuben, the marquis here checked the invaders, who retired to City Point, at the junction of the James and Appomattox. After collecting an immense plunder in tobacco and slaves, besides destroying ships, mills, and every species of property that fell in his way, Phillips embarked his army and dropped some distance down the river.

MONTICELLO.

Cornwallis's Campaign.—Cornwallis, approaching Virginia from the south, ordered Phillips to meet him at Petersburg. Before the arrival of the earl (May 20), General Phillips died (May 13) at Petersburg. On May 24 Cornwallis crossed the James and pushed on towards Richmond. He seized all the fine horses he could find, with which he mounted about 600 cavalry, whom he sent after Lafayette, then not far distant from Richmond, with 3,000 men, waiting for the arrival of Wayne, who was approaching with Pennsylvania troops. The marquis fell slowly back, and at a ford on the North Anne he met Wayne with 800 men. Cornwallis had pursued him as far as Hanover Court-house, from which place the earl sent Lieutenant-Colonel Simcoe, with his loyalist corps, the "Queen's Rangers," to capture or destroy stores in charge of Steuben at the junction of the Ravenna and Fluvanna rivers. In this he failed.

Tarleton had been detached, at the same time, to capture Governor Jefferson and the members of the Virginia legislature at Charlottesville, whither they had fled from Richmond. Only seven of them were made captives. Jefferson narrowly escaped by fleeing from his house (at Monticello) on horseback, accompanied by a single servant, and hiding in the mountains. He had left his dwelling only ten minutes before one of Tarleton's officers entered it. At Jefferson's plantation, near the Point of Forks, Cornwallis committed the most wanton destruction of property, cutting the throats of young horses not fit for service, slaughtering the cattle, and burning the barns with remains of previous crops, laying waste growing ones, burning all the fences on the plantation, and carrying away about thirty slaves. Lafayette now turned upon the earl, when the latter, supposing the forces of the marquis to be much greater than they were, retreated in haste down the Virginia peninsula to Williamsburg, blackening his pathway with fire. It is estimated that during the invasion—from Arnold's advent in January until Cornwallis reached Williamsburg late in June—property to the amount of $15,000,000 was destroyed and 30,000 slaves were carried away. The British, in their retreat, had been closely followed by

Lafayette, Wayne, and Steuben, and were not allowed a minute's rest until they reached Williamsburg, where they were protected by their shipping.

The convention to consider the Articles of Confederation, or to form a new constitution, having met on the invitation of Virginia, courtesy assigned to the delegates from that State the task of giving a start to the proceedings. Accordingly, Governor Randolph, after a speech on the defects of the confederation, on May 29, 1787, offered fifteen resolutions suggesting amendments to the federal system. They proposed a national legislature, to consist of two branches, the members of the first or more numerous branch to be chosen by the people, and to be apportioned to the States in the proportion of free population or taxes; those of the second branch to be chosen by the first, out of candidates to be nominated by the State legislatures. A separate national executive was proposed, to be chosen by the national legislature; a national judiciary and a council of revision, to consist of the executive and a part of the judiciary, with a qualified negative on every act of legislation, State as well as national. These were the principal features of the "Virginia plan," as it was called. It was referred to a committee, together with a sketch of a plan by Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, which, in its form and arrangement, furnished the outline of the constitution as adopted. See KENTUCKY AND VIRGINIA RESOLUTIONS.

Virginia long maintained a predominating influence in the nation. During the War of 1812–15 its coasts were ravaged by British marauders. In 1831 an insurrection occurred in Southampton county, led by a negro named Nat Turner, which alarmed the whole State, but it was speedily subdued. In 1859 an attempt was made by JOHN BROWN (*q. v.*) to free the slaves.

Civil War Period.—Early in 1861 the question of secession divided the people. The Confederate leaders of Virginia found it hard work to "carry out" the State, for there was a strong Union sentiment among the people, especially in the west. They finally procured the authorization of a convention, which assembled in Richmond, Feb. 13, 1861, with John Janney as chairman. It had a stormy session from February until April, for the Unionists were in the majority. Even as late as April 4 the convention refused, by a vote of 89 against 45, to pass an ordinance of secession. But the pressure of the Confederates had then become so

A VIRGINIA LANDSCAPE.

hard that one weak Unionist after another gave way, converted by sophistry or threats. Commissioners were sent to President Lincoln, to ascertain his determination about seceding States, who were told explicitly that he should defend the life of the republic to the best of his ability. Their report added fuel to the flame of passion then raging in Richmond. In the convention, the only question remaining on the evening of April 15 was, Shall Virginia secede at once, or wait for the co-operation of the border slave-labor States? In the midst of the excitement pending that question, the convention adjourned until the next morning.

STATE SEAL OF VIRGINIA.

The following day the convention assembled in secret session. For three days threats and persuasion had been brought to bear upon the faithful Union members, who were chiefly from the mountain districts of western Virginia, where slavery had a very light hold upon the people. On the adjournment, on the 15th, there was a clear majority of 153 in the convention against secession. Many of the Unionists gave way on the 16th. It was calculated that if ten Union members of the convention should be absent, there would be a majority for secession. That number of the weaker ones were waited upon on the evening of the 16th, and informed that they had the choice of doing one of three things—namely, to vote for a secession ordinance, to absent themselves, or be hanged.* Resistance would be useless, and the ten members did not appear in the convention. Other Unionists who remained in the convention were awed by their violent proceedings, and on Monday, April 17, an ordinance was passed by a vote of 85 against 55 entitled, "An ordinance to repeal the ratification of the Constitution of the United States of America by the State of Virginia, and to reserve all the rights and powers granted under said Constitution."

At the same time the convention passed an ordinance requiring the governor to call out as many volunteers as might be necessary to repel an invasion of the State. It was ordained that the secession ordinance should go into effect only when it should be ratified by the votes of a majority of the people. The day for the casting of such vote was fixed for May 23. Meanwhile the whole military force of Virginia had been placed under the control of the Confederate States of America. Nearly the whole State was under the control of the military authority. At the time appointed for the vote, Senator James M. Mason, author of the fugitive slave law, addressed a letter to the people, declaring that the ordinance of secession absolved them from all allegiance to the United States; that they were bound to support the "sacred pledge" made to the "Confederate States" by the treaty of annexation, etc.

The Virginia convention had appointed ex-President John Tyler, W. Ballard Preston, S. M. D. Moore, James P. Holcombe, James C. Bruce, and Levi E. Harvie, commissioners to treat with Alexander H. Stephens, Vice-President of the Confederate States of America, for the annexation of Virginia to the Southern Confederacy. Mr. Stephens was clothed with full power to make a treaty to that effect. It was then planned to seize the national capital; and at several places on his way towards Richmond, where he harangued the people, he raised the cry of "On to Washington!" (*q. v.*). Troops were pressing towards that goal from the South. He was received in Richmond, by the authorities of every

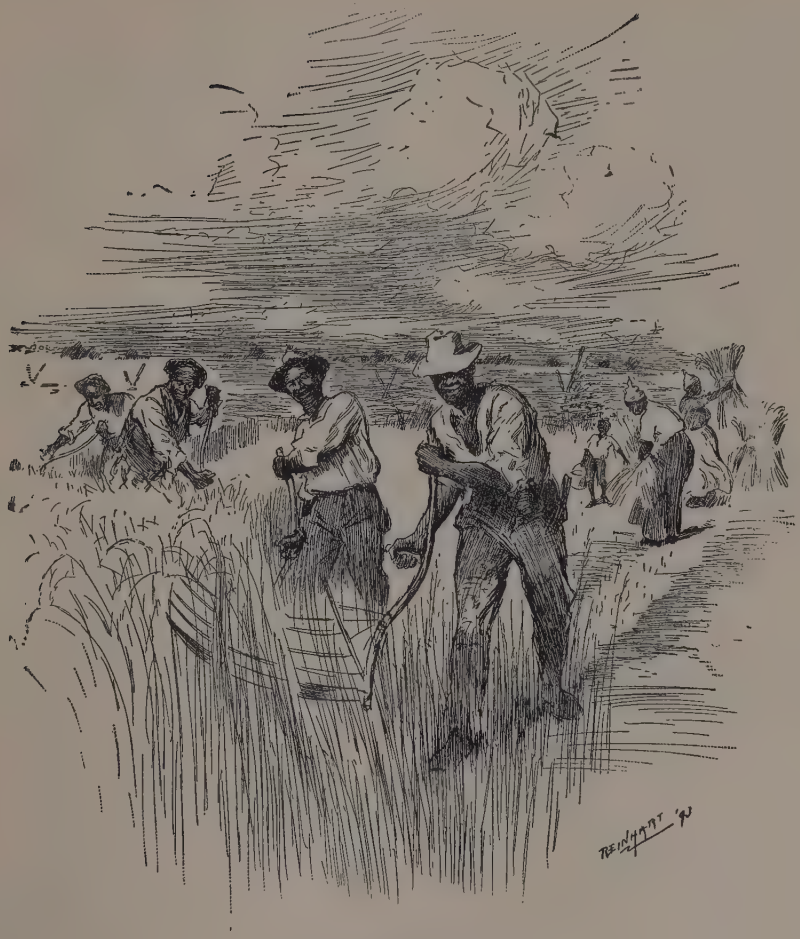
* Statement by a member of the convention, cited in the *Annual Cyclopaedia*, 1861, p. 735.

kind, with assurances that his mission would be successful. The leaders were eager for the consummation of the treaty before the people should vote on the ordinance of secession; and on Stephens's arrival he and the Virginia commissioners entered upon their prescribed duties. On April 24 they agreed to and signed a "convention between the commonwealth of Virginia and the Confederate States of America," which provided that, until the union of Virginia with the latter should be perfected, "the whole military force and military operations, offensive and defensive, of said commonwealth in the impending conflict with the United States, should be under the chief control and direction of the President of the Confederate States."

On the following day the convention passed an ordinance ratifying the treaty, and adopting and ratifying the "provisional constitution of the Confederate States of America." On the same day John Tyler telegraphed to Governor Pickens, of South Carolina: "We are fellow-citizens once more. By an ordinance passed this day Virginia has adopted the provisional government of the Confederate States." They also proceeded to appoint delegates to the Confederate Congress; authorized the banks of the State to suspend specie payment; made provision for the establishment of a navy for Virginia, and for enlistments for the State army, and adopted other preparations for war. They also invited the Confederate States government to make Richmond its headquarters. The proclamation of the annexation was immediately put forth by John Letcher, the governor of Virginia. All this was done almost a month before the people of Virginia were allowed to vote on secession.

The vote for secession was 125,950, and against secession 20,373. This did not include the vote of northwestern Virginia, where, in convention, ten days before the voting, they had planted the seeds of a

AN OLD PARISH CHURCH IN VIRGINIA.



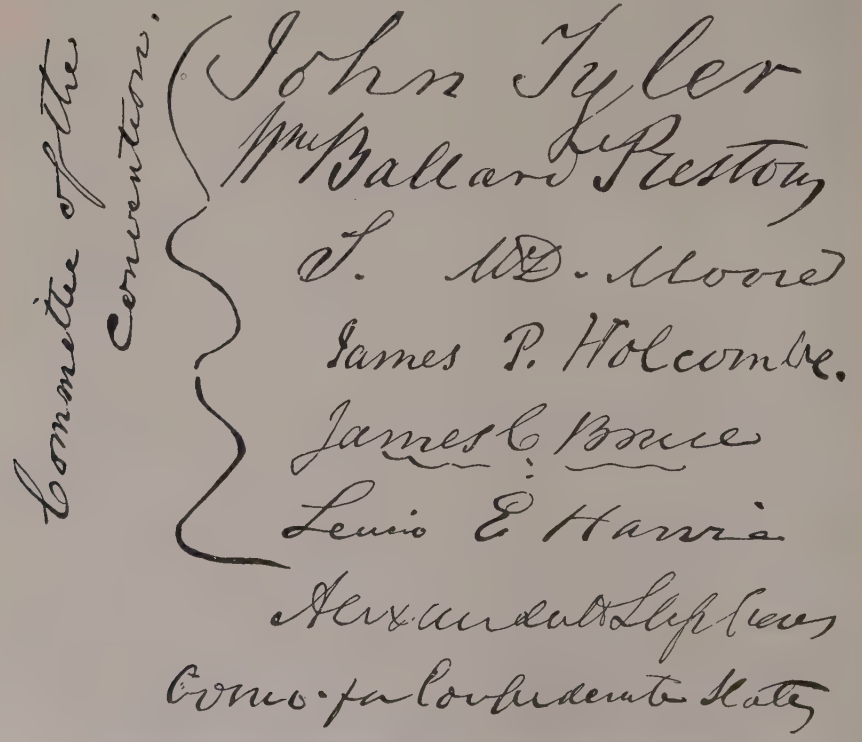
AGRICULTURAL SCENE IN VIRGINIA

new commonwealth (see WEST VIRGINIA). The State authorities immediately afterwards took possession of national property within the limits of Virginia, and on April 25 action was taken for the annexation of the State to the Southern Confederacy, and surrendering the control of its military to the latter power. On May 7 the State was admitted to representation in the Confederate Congress, and large forces of Confederate troops were concentrated within its limits for the purpose of attempting to seize the national capital. From that time until the close of the Civil War Virginia suffered intensely from its ravages.

The Confederates assembled at Manassas Junction attempted to take a position near the capital. Early in May the family of Col. Robert E. Lee had left Arlington House, opposite Georgetown, with its most valuable contents, and joined him at Richmond. Under his guidance the Confederates were preparing to fortify Arlington Heights, where heavy siege guns would command the cities of Washington and Georgetown. This movement was discovered in time to defeat its ob-

ject. Already Confederate pickets were on Arlington Heights, and at the Virginia end of the Long Bridge across the Potomac. Orders were immediately given for National troops to occupy the shores of the Potomac River, opposite Washington, and the city of Alexandria, 9 miles below. Towards midnight, May 23, 13,000 troops in Washington, under the command of General Mansfield, were put in motion for the passage of the Potomac at three points—one column to cross the Aqueduct Bridge at Georgetown; another at the Long Bridge, at Washington, and a third to proceed in vessels to Alexandria. Gen. Irvin McDowell led the column across the Aqueduct Bridge, in the light of a full moon, and took possession of Arlington Heights. At the same time the second column was crossing the Long Bridge, 2 miles below, and soon joined McDowell's column on Arlington Heights and began casting up fortifications. The New York Fire Zouave Regiment, commanded by Col. Ephraim Elmore Ellsworth (*q. v.*), embarked in vessels and sailed for Alexandria, while another body of troops marched for the same destination by way of the Long Bridge. The two divisions reached Alexandria about the same time. The United States frigate *Pawnee* was lying in the river off Alexandria, and her commander had been in negotiation for the surrender of the city. Ignorant of this fact, Ellsworth marched to the centre of the town and took formal possession of it in the name of his government, the Virginia troops having fled. The Orange and Alexandria Railway station was seized with much rolling-stock, and very soon Alexandria was in the quiet possession of the National forces.

Governor Letcher had concentrated troops at Grafton, on the Baltimore and Ohio Railway, under Colonel Porterfield. A camp of Ohio volunteers had assem-



SIGNATURES OF THE COMMISSIONERS OF VIRGINIA AND THE SOUTHERN CONFEDERACY.

AN OLD VIRGINIA MANSION.

bled opposite Wheeling. General McClellan was assigned to the Department of the Ohio, which included western Virginia and Indiana. A regiment of loyal Virginians had been formed at Wheeling, and B. F. Kelley, a native of New Hampshire, and once a resident of Wheeling, was invited to be its leader. It rendezvoused at the camp of the volunteers. Having visited Indianapolis and assured the assembled troops there that they would soon be called upon to fight for their country, McClellan issued an address (May 26) to the Union citizens of western Virginia; and then, in obedience to orders, he proceeded with volunteers—Kelley's regiment and other Virginians—to attempt to drive the Confederate forces out of that region and advance on Harper's Ferry. He assured the people that the Ohio and Indiana troops under him should respect their rights. To his soldiers he said, "Your mission is to cross the frontier, to protect the majesty of the law, and secure our brethren from the grasp of armed traitors." Immediately afterwards Kelley and his regiment crossed over to Wheeling and marched on Grafton. Porterfield fled in alarm, with about 1,500 followers (one-third cavalry), and took post at Philippi, about 16 miles distant. The Ohio and Indiana troops followed Kelley, and were nearly all near Grafton on June 2. There the whole Union force was divided into two columns—one under Kelley, the other under Col. E. Dumont, of Indiana. These marched upon Philippi by different routes, over rugged hills. Kelley and Porterfield had a severe skirmish at Philippi. The Confederates, attacked by the other column, were already flying in confusion. The Union troops captured Porterfield's official papers, baggage, and arms. Colonel Kelley was severely wounded, and Colonel Dumont

assumed the command of the combined columns. They retired to Grafton, where for a while the headquarters of the National troops in northwestern Virginia were established. So the Civil War was begun in western Virginia.

After the dispersion of Garnett's forces in western Virginia, events seemed to prophesy that the war was ended in that region. General Cox had been successful in driving ex-Governor Wise and his followers out of the Kanawha region. He had crossed the Ohio at the mouth of the Guyandotte River, captured Barboursville, and pushed on to the Kanawha Valley. Wise was there, below Charlestown. His outpost below was driven to his camp by 1,500 Ohio troops under Colonel Lowe. The fugitives gave such an account of Cox's numbers that the general and all the Confederates fled (July 20), and did not halt until they reached Lewisburg, the capital of Greenbrier county. The news of Garnett's disaster and Wise's incompetence so dispirited his troops that large numbers left him. He was reinforced and outranked by John B. Floyd (formerly United States Secretary of War), who took the chief command. McClellan regarded the war as over in western Virginia. "We have completely annihilated the enemy in western Virginia," he said in an address to his troops. "Our loss is about thirteen killed, and not more than forty wounded; while the enemy's loss is not far from 200 killed, and the number of prisoners we have taken will amount to at least 1,000. We have captured seven of the enemy's guns." Rosecrans succeeded Mc-

TROOPS ON THE MARCH IN VIRGINIA.

Clellan in the chief command in that region, the former having been called to the command of the Army of the Potomac. But the Confederates were not willing to surrender to the Nationals the granaries that would be needful to supply the troops in eastern Virginia without a struggle, and General Lee was placed in the chief command of the Confederate forces there, superseding the incompetents.

After Lee was recalled to Richmond, in 1861, Floyd and Rosecrans were competitors for the possession of the Kanawha Valley. The former, late in October, took post at a place where his cannon commanded the road over which supplies for the latter passed, and it was resolved to dislodge or capture him. General Schenck was sent to gain Floyd's rear, but he was hindered by a sudden flood in New River, though the Confederates were struck (Nov. 12) in front by Kentuckians under Major Leeper. Floyd fled precipitately, strewing the way with tents, tent-poles, working utensils, and ammunition in order to lighten his wagons. General Benham, pursuing, struck Floyd's rear-guard of 400 cavalry in the flight; but the pursuit was ended after a 30-mile race, and the fugitives escaped. Floyd soon afterwards took leave of his army. Meanwhile General Reynolds was moving vigorously. Lee had left Gen. H. R. Jackson, of Georgia, with about 3,000 men, on Greenbrier River, at the foot of Cheat Mountain, and a small force at Huntersville, to watch Reynolds. He was near a noted tavern on the Staunton pike called "Travellers' Rest." Reynolds moved about 5,000 men of Ohio, Indiana, Michigan, and Virginia against Jackson at the beginning of October, 1861. On the morning of the 2d they attacked Jackson, and were repulsed, after an engagement of seven hours, with a loss of ten men killed and thirty-two wounded. Jackson lost in picket-firing and in the trenches about 200 men. Reynolds fell back to Elkwater. Meanwhile General Kelley, who was guarding the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, had struck (Oct. 26) the Confederates under McDonald at Romney, and, after a severe contest of two hours, routed them, capturing three cannon and a large number of prisoners. The blow given Jackson at "Travellers' Rest" paralyzed the Confederate power in western Virginia. He left his troops (about 2,000 in number) with Col. Edward Johnson, of Georgia, and returned to that State. Reynolds had left his troops in charge of Gen. Robert H. Milroy, consisting of a single brigade, to hold the mountain passes. He scouted the hills vigorously, skirmishing here and there, and finally, on Dec. 12, moved to attack Johnson. He was at first unsuccessful, the Confederates became the aggressors, and, after losing nearly 200 men, he retired. The Confederate loss was about the same. Late in December Milroy sent some troops under Major Webster to look up a Confederate force at Huntersville. It was successful, after a weary march of 50 miles over ground covered with snow. The Confederates were dispersed, a large amount of stores burned, and their soldiers, disheartened, almost entirely disappeared from that region.

When McClellan's army went to the Virginia peninsula (April, 1862), there were three distinct Union armies in the vicinity of the Blue Ridge, acting independently, but in co-operation with the Army of the Potomac. One was in the Mountain Department, under General Frémont; a second in the Department of the Shenandoah, under General Banks; and a third in the newly created Department of the Rappahannock, under General McDowell. Frémont was at Franklin, in Pendleton county, early in April, with 15,000 men; Banks was at Strasburg, in the Shenandoah Valley, with about 16,000 men; and McDowell was at Fredericksburg, on the Rappahannock, with 30,000 men. When Washington was relieved by the departure of Johnson for the peninsula, McDowell was ordered forward to co-operate with McClellan, and Shields's division was added to his force, making it about 40,000.

Arrangements had been made for the service of auxiliary or co-operating troops in western Virginia, before the Army of the Potomac started for Richmond in May, 1864. In that region Confederate cavalry, guerilla bands, and bushwhackers had been mischievously active for some time. Moseby was an active marauder there, and, as early as January (1864), Gen. Fitzhugh Lee (*q. v.*), with his mounted men, had

made a fruitless raid on the Baltimore and Ohio Railway west of Cumberland. A little later Gen. Jubal A. Early, in command of the Confederates in the Shenandoah Valley, sent a foraging expedition under Rosser in the same direction, who was more successful, capturing 1,200 cattle and 500 sheep at one place, and a company of Union soldiers at another. General Averill struck him near Romney and drove him entirely out of the new commonwealth (see WEST VIRGINIA), with the loss of his prisoners and a large proportion of his own men and horses. General Sigel was put at the head of a large force in the Shenandoah Valley (April, 1864), who gave the command of the Kanawha Valley to General Crook. On his way up the valley from Staunton with 8,000 men, Sigel was met at New Market by an equal force under Breckinridge. After much manœuvring and skirmishing, Breckinridge charged on Sigel, near New Market, and, after a sharp fight, drove him down the valley to the shelter of Cedar Creek, near Strasburg, with a loss

AFTER APPOMATTOX.

of 700 men, six guns, 1,000 small-arms, and a portion of his train. Sigel was immediately superseded by General Hunter, who was instructed to move swiftly

STATE CAPITOL AND CITY HALL, RICHMOND, VA.

on Staunton, destroy the railway between that place and Charlottesville, and then move on Lynchburg. Crook, meanwhile, had met General McCausland and fought and defeated him at Dublin Station, on the Virginia and Tennessee Railway, and destroyed a few miles of that road. Crook lost 700 men, killed and wounded. Averill had, meanwhile, been unsuccessful in that region. Hunter advanced on Staunton, and, at Piedmont, not far from that place, he fought with Generals Jones and McCausland (see PIEDMONT, BATTLE OF). At Staunton, Crook and Averill joined Hunter, when the National forces concentrated there, about 20,000 strong, moved towards Lynchburg by way of Lexington. That city was the focal point of a vast and fertile region, from which Lee drew supplies. Lee had given to Lynchburg such strength that when Hunter attacked it (June 18) he was unable to take it. Making a circuitous march, the Nationals entered the Kanawha Valley, where they expected to find 1,500,000 rations left by Crook and Averill under a guard. A guerilla band had swept away the rations and men, and the National army suffered dreadfully for want of food and forage.

May 9, 1865, President Johnson recognized Francis H. Pierpont as governor of the State. He exercised jurisdiction from Alexandria until the installation of military government in 1867.

Later Events.—A new constitution was ratified on July 6, 1869, by a majority of 197,044 votes. The constitution was in accordance with the Fourteenth Amendment of the national Constitution. State officers and representatives in Congress were chosen at the same time; and in January, 1870, Virginia was admitted to representation in the Congress. On June

6, 1902, a new constitution was adopted by the constitutional convention, as before stated.

As a result of the prohibition movement, forty-six counties were reported as having voted "dry" up to the close of 1907. In 1908 the United States Supreme Court reversed the decision of Judge Pritchard, holding the proposed two-cent passenger rate law void; a child-labor and a public-school teachers' retirement and pension laws were enacted; the disposal of cocaine either by gift or sale was prohibited; and electrocution was substituted for hanging. The legislature in 1910 authorized the appointment of a State tax commission; accepted the federal income-tax amendment in the senate, but rejected it in the house; and adopted measures to provide agricultural education, create drainage districts for the improvement of swamp lands, and suppress white slavery.

In 1911 the United States Supreme Court settled the long-pending controversy between Virginia and West Virginia concerning the adjustment of the old Virginia State debt. In the negotiations between the two States in 1871, Virginia assumed that West Virginia would provide for one-third of the principal and interest of the then existing debt—that is, $15,239,370 out of the total debt of $45,718,112. On this understanding "deferred certificates" were issued to cover West Virginia's share of the old debt. The latter State, however, refused to recognize these certificates, and a long litigation ensued. In its decision the United States Supreme Court held that West Virginia should assume liability for a debt of $7,182,507, and leave the question of interest for future adjustment.

Virginia City, city and capital of Storey county, Nev.; on the e. slope of Mt. Davidson, at an elevation of over 6,000 feet; 15 miles n. e. of Carson City; owes its existence to the discovery here in 1859 of the famous Comstock Lode, and, later, of the Big Bonanza or Consolidated Virginia mine. In 1860–90 the Comstock mine had an output valued at $600,000,000; since then the production has decreased, being in 1909, gold, $556,621, and silver, 501,625 fine ounces—all from the Comstock mines.

Virginia Resolutions of 1798. See KENTUCKY AND VIRGINIA RESOLUTIONS.

Virginia, UNIVERSITY OF, a State institution for male students only at Charlottesville, Va.; planned by Thomas Jefferson; and chartered under its present name in 1819, having for a nucleus Central College, which had been established in 1816. Jefferson was its first rector and its active director till his death in 1826, and was so proud of it that he included in his own epitaph for his tomb the declaration that he was "father of the University of Virginia." Originally the university comprised eight independent schools, and it was governed by the faculty and its chairman till 1904, when DR. EDWIN A. ALDERMAN (*q. v.*) was elected its first president. The university has two academic and four professional departments, comprising the college, the graduate, and the law, medicine, engineering, and agriculture departments. The honor system prevails in all examinations, and public speaking and debating are promoted by two societies of early organization. There are about seventy-five professors and instructors, over 700 students, 75,000 volumes in the libraries, grounds and buildings valued at over $2,000,000, and endowment funds exceeding $1,500,000.

"Virginius," THE. Troubles with the Spanish authorities in Cuba and menaces of war with Spain existed since filibustering movements from the United States to that island began, in 1850. An insurrection had broken out in Cuba, and assumed formidable proportions, carrying on civil war for several years. When the Cuban junta in New York City began to fit out vessels to carry men and war materials to the insurgent camps, the United States government, determined to observe the strictest neutrality and impartiality, took measures to suppress the hostile movements; but irritations on the part of the Spanish authorities continued, and, finally, late in 1873, war between Spain and the United States seemed inevitable. The steamship *Virginius*, flying the United States flag, suspected of carrying men and supplies to the insurgent Cubans, was captured by a Spanish cruiser off the coast of Cuba, taken into port, and some of the crew were publicly shot by

the local military authorities. The affair produced intense excitement in the United States. There was, for a while, a hot war-spirit all over the Union; but wise men in control of the governments of the United States and Spain calmly considered the international questions involved, and settled the matter by diplomacy. There were rights to be acknowledged by both parties. The *Virginius* was surrendered to the United States authorities, and ample reparation for the outrage was offered, excepting the impossible restoration of the lives taken by the Spaniards. While the vessel was on its way to New York, under an escort, it sprang aleak off Cape Fear, at the close of December (1873), and went to the bottom of the sea. See CUBA; SPAIN, WAR WITH.

"Viscaya," THE, a Spanish armored cruiser that was sent to New York to reciprocate the friendly voyage of the ill-fated American battle-ship *Maine* to Havana in February, 1898. While at anchor at New York the *Viscaya* was under a special naval protection lest some harm should befall her in the excitement over conditions in Cuba; and in the battle off Santiago, July 3, she was one of the first of the Spanish fleet to be destroyed. See SANTIAGO, NAVAL BATTLE OF.

Visayan Islands, one of the four great insular groups of the Philippine Archipelago; in the sea variously known as Oton, Interior, Interinsular, and Visayan; occupies a central position in the American possessions in East Asia, having Luzon on the n., the Pacific Ocean on the e., Mindanao on the s., and Mindoro, Calamianes group, Paragua, and Moro Palawan, and the intervening Mindoro and Sulu Seas on the w.; area, 25,302 square miles. Pop. (1887, Spanish census), 2,486,205; (1903, United States census), (2,959,600. This group, originally known as the *Islas de Pintados (Islands of the Painted Men)*, received its present name from racial considerations, the Visayans being the most numerous of the four great ethnological classes of the archipelago. The main islands of the group are Bohol, Cebu, Leyte, Masbote, Negros, Panay, Romblon, and Samar, and there are about 500 charted and named dependent islands, many of geographical importance.

Visible Speech, a system of communication devised by Alexander Melville Bell, who called it a "universal self-interpreting physiological alphabet." It comprises thirty symbols representing the forms of the mouth when uttering sounds. About fifty symbols, the inventor asserts, would be required to represent the sounds of all known languages. He expounded his system to the Society of Arts, London, March 14, 1866, and published a book in 1867.

Vogdes, ISRAEL, military officer; born in Willistown, Pa., Aug. 4, 1816; graduated at West Point in 1837, where he remained two years assistant professor of mathematics. He entered the artillery, and served in the Seminole War. In May, 1861, he was made major. He gallantly defended FORT PICKENS (*q. v.*) from February to October, 1861, when he was made prisoner in the night attack on Santa Rosa Island. He was active in the operations on Folly and Morris islands against forts Wagner and Sumter, and commanded the defences of Norfolk and Portsmouth in 1864–65. In April, 1865, he was brevetted brigadier-general United States army, and in 1881 was retired. He died in New York, Dec. 7, 1889.

Volk, STEPHEN ARNOLD DOUGLAS, artist; born in Pittsfield, Mass., Feb. 23, 1856; studied in Italy in 1871–73; was the pupil of Gérôme in Paris in 1873–75; and was elected to the Society of American Artists in 1880. His works include *The Puritan Maiden; The Puritan Captives; Accused of Witchcraft*, etc.

Volney, CONSTANTIN FRANCOIS CHASSEBŒUF BOISGIRAIS, COMTE DE, author; born in Craon, France, Feb. 3, 1757. When war with France seemed to be inevitable, in 1798, suspicions of the designs of Frenchmen in this country were keenly awakened. Talleyrand, who had resided awhile in the United States, was suspected of having acted as a spy for the French government, and other exiled Frenchmen were suspected of being on the same errand. It was known that Frenchmen were busy in Kentucky and in Georgia fomenting discontents, and it was strongly suspected that M. de Volney, who had explored the Western country, ostensibly with only scientific views, was acting in the capacity of a spy for the French government, with a view to finally annexing the country west

of the Alleghany Mountains to Louisiana, which France was about to obtain by a secret treaty with Spain. These suspicions led to the enactment of the ALIEN AND SEDITION LAWS (*q. v.*). The passage of the alien law alarmed Volney and other Frenchmen, and two or three ship-loads left the United States for France. He died in Paris, France, April 25, 1820.

Volunteer Refreshment Saloons. Working in harmony with the organizations of the UNITED STATES SANITARY COMMISSION and CHRISTIAN COMMISSION (*qq. v.*), were houses of refreshment and temporary hospital accommodations furnished by the citizens of Philadelphia. That city lay in the channel of the great stream of volunteers from New England after the call of the President (April 15, 1861) for 75,000 men. The soldiers, crossing New Jersey, and the Delaware River at Camden, were landed at the foot of Washington Avenue, Philadelphia, where, wearied and hungry, they often vainly sought for sufficient refreshments in the bakeries and groceries in the neighborhood before entering the cars for Washington. One morning the wife of a mechanic living near, commiserating the situation of some of the soldiers who had just arrived, went with her coffee-pot and a cup and distributed its contents among them. That generous hint was the germ of a wonderful system of beneficent relief to the passing soldiers which was immediately developed in that city. Some benevolent women living in the vicinity of this landing-place of the volunteers imitated their patriotic sister, and a few of them formed themselves into a committee for the regular distribution of coffee on the arrival of soldiers.

Gentlemen in the neighborhood interested themselves in procuring other supplies, and for a few days these were dispensed under the shade of trees in front of a cooper-shop at the corner of Otsego Street and Washington Avenue. Then the cooper-shop (belonging to William Cooper) was used. The citizens of Philadelphia became deeply interested in the benevolent work, and provided ample means to carry it on. Whole regiments were supplied. The cooper-shop was too small to accommodate the daily increasing number of soldiers, and another place of refreshment was opened on the corner of Washington Avenue and Swanson Street, in a building formerly used as a boat-house and rigger's loft. Two volunteer refreshment-saloon committees were formed, and known respectively as the Cooper-shop and the Union. They worked in harmony and accomplished wonderful results all through the period of the war. In these labors the women of Philadelphia bore a large share. The citizens of Philadelphia so generously supplied these committees with means that during the war almost 1,200,000 Union soldiers received a bountiful meal at their saloons. In the Union Saloon 750,000 soldiers were fed; 40,000 were accommodated with a night's lodging; 15,000 refugees and freedmen were cared for, and employment found for them; and in the hospital attached the wounds of almost 20,000 soldiers were dressed. The refreshment-tables and the sick-room were attended by women. At all hours of the night, when a little signal-gun was fired, these self-sacrificing women would repair to their post of duty.

Volunteers. See MILITIA, UNITED STATES.

Volunteers of America, THE, a philanthropic and religious organization, inaugurated in March, 1896, by Commander and Mrs. Ballington Booth in response to numerous requests on the part of American citizens. It is organized in military style, having as its model the United States army, but in conjunction with military discipline and methods of work it possesses a thoroughly democratic form of government, having as its ideal the Constitution of the United States of America.

Its adherence to American principles has been further signalized by the movement having been incorporated in November, 1896. The object of the volunteers is to reach with the gospel of the Bible the millions of this and other countries who have hitherto been unreached by any existing religious organization. The fact is recognized that these untouched masses pervade every section of society, and while those of the lowliest walks of life—the poor, the vicious, the criminal, the drunkard, and others—will always be the object of the tenderest solicitude of the volunteers, the teeming thousands of the middle class, and the sinful and godless

in even aristocratic circles, will also be confronted with the eternal truths of divine revelation and the gospel of full salvation.

During the fiscal year ending Sept. 1, 1910, the following results were attained, according to a statement prepared in the office of President Ballington Booth.

During the year 4,989 women were cared for in the Homes of Mercy, and 38,743 beds were provided in these institutions. The Volunteer workers visited and aided no less than 34,318 families in and around the poorest sections of the large cities. No less than 334,890 persons were lodged in the homes and institutions for working men and women, and many thousands were given temporary relief during the strikes in several sections of the country. There were 640,944 persons fed with substantial meals in the above institutions, apart from those assisted temporarily during the holiday and festival occasions. In the Volunteer hospital located in New York City, 14,001 new and 17,767 old cases were treated in the Dispensary. During the year also 2,445 days' treatment were given to free patients; 3,909 to public charges, and 574 to pay patients.

The Volunteer Prisoners' League, under the direction of Mrs. Maud Ballington Booth, has embraced in all some 72,000 members, of which it is safe to assert that 79 per cent. are leading reformed lives. By correspondence and service it is directly and indirectly in touch with 80,000 men behind the bars to-day. During the year 926,953 persons attended the Volunteer Sunday and week-night services; while 2,733,842 persons gathered in the open-air services.

Von Holst, HERMANN EDUARD. See HOLST, HERMANN EDUARD VON.

Voorhees, DANIEL WOLSEY, legislator; born in Liberty, O., Sept. 26, 1827; graduated at Indiana (now De Pauw) University in 1849; admitted to the bar and began practice in Covington, Ind., in 1851; was United States district attorney for Indiana in 1859–61; member of Congress in 1861–66 and 1869–73; and United States Senator from Indiana in 1877–97. During his services in the Senate he was a member of the committees on elections, appropriations, finance, immigration, library, and international expositions. Because of his tall, erect figure he was named "The Tall Sycamore of the Wabash." He died in Washington, D. C., April 10, 1897.

Voorhees, PHILIP FALKERSON, naval officer; born in New Brunswick, N. J., in 1792; entered the navy as midshipman in 1809; was promoted commander in 1828, and captain in 1838. He took part in the war of 1812–15; participating in the capture of the *Macedonia* by the *United States* and the *Epervier* by the *Peacock;* served on the frigate *Congress* in 1842–45; during which time he assisted in rescuing the stranded British steamer *Gorgon* in the La Platte River; and also captured an armed Argentina squadron and an allied cruiser. The latter action occasioned a series of charges on which he was court-martialled in 1845; but was restored to his full rank in the navy and given command of the East India squadron, where he remained till 1851; and was placed on the retired list in 1855. He died in Annapolis, Md., Feb. 26, 1862.

Vose, JOSEPH, military officer; born in Milton, Mass., Nov. 26, 1738; led the expedition which destroyed the light-house and hay on islands in Boston Harbor May 27, 1775. In November he was made lieutenant-colonel of Greaton's regiment and accompanied it to Canada in the spring of 1776. In 1777 he joined the main army in New Jersey, and his last military service was under Lafayette at Yorktown. He died in Milton, Mass., May 22, 1816.

Voters, REGISTRATION OF. See ELECTIVE FRANCHISE.

Voting, QUALIFICATIONS FOR. See ELECTIVE FRANCHISE.

Voyages. See UNITED STATES OF AMERICA *(Pre-Columbian History).*

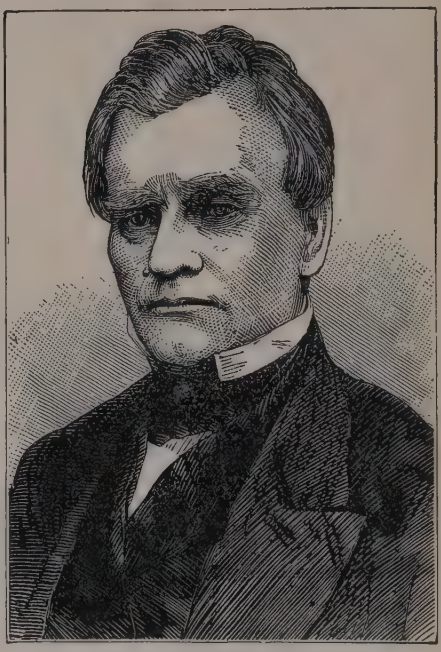
Vries, DAVID PIETERSSEN DE. See DE VRIES, DAVID PIETERSSEN.

W.

Waddell, Hugh, military officer; born in Lisburn, Ireland, in 1734; settled in North Carolina in 1753; was made lieutenant in the regiment of Col. James Innes and took part in the Virginia campaign in 1758; built Fort Dobbs, which he commanded in 1756–57. During the expedition to Fort Duquesne in 1758 he commanded the North Carolina troops; promoted colonel in 1759. When the English war-vessel *Diligence*, which brought over the stamped paper, endeavored to land a detachment of troops at Brunswick in 1765, he seized the ship's boat, and compelled William Houston, the stamp officer, to sign a pledge in public, promising that he would "never receive any stamped paper which might arrive from England, nor officiate in any way in the distribution of stamps in the province of North Carolina." In 1771 he conducted the campaign against the regulators. He died in Castle Haynes, N. C., April 9, 1773.

Waddell, James Iredell, naval officer; born in Pittsboro, N. C., in 1824; graduated at the United States Naval Academy; resigned from the navy in 1861, and entered the Confederate service in the following year; commanded the ram *Louisiana* at New Orleans till the engagement with Farragut's fleet, when he destroyed that vessel by blowing her up; later was ordered to England, where in 1864 he took command of the *Shenandoah*, with which he cruised in the Pacific Ocean, destroying vessels till Aug. 2, 1865, when he learned that Lee had surrendered more than three months before. Returning to England he surrendered his vessel to the United States consul at Liverpool, and he and his crew were liberated. The *Shenandoah*, under Captain Waddell, was the only vessel that ever carried the Confederate flag around the world. He died in Annapolis, Md., March 15, 1886.

Wade, Benjamin Franklin, statesman; born near Springfield, Mass., Oct. 27, 1800; removed to Ashtabula, O., in 1821; admitted to the bar in 1827; elected prosecuting attorney in 1835; State Senator in 1837; and was United States Senator in



BENJAMIN FRANKLIN WADE.

1851–69. He was a conspicuous anti-slavery leader, opposed the Kansas-Nebraska bill; favored the homestead bill and the confiscation of property in slaves. He was acting Vice-President of the United States under President Johnson; and one of the commissioners to Santo Domingo in 1871. He died in Jefferson, O., March 2, 1878.

Wade, James F., military officer; born in Ohio, April 14, 1843; was commission-

ed first lieutenant 6th United States Cavalry, May 14, 1861; colonel 5th Cavalry in 1887; brigadier-general, May 26, 1897; major-general, April 13, 1903; retired April 14, 1907. In the volunteer service he was commissioned colonel, Sept. 19, 1864; brevetted brigadier-general, Feb. 13, 1865; and mustered out of service, April 15, 1866. On May 4, 1898, he was commissioned a major-general of volunteers for the war against Spain, and was honorably discharged from this service, June 12, 1899. General Wade was chairman of the American commission to arrange and supervise the evacuation of Cuba (Jan. 1, 1899), and subsequently held commands in the Philippines (1901–04) and of the Atlantic Division (1904–07).

Wadsworth, JAMES, military officer; born in Durham, Conn., July 6, 1730; graduated at Yale College in 1748; was a member of the committee of safety at the outbreak of the Revolutionary War; became brigadier-general of Connecticut militia in 1776, and major-general in 1777, when he was assigned to the defence of the coast towns of his State. Later he presided over the New Haven county court of common pleas, and was a member of the Continental Congress in 1783–86. He died in Durham, Conn., Sept. 22, 1817.

Wadsworth, JAMES SAMUEL, military officer; born in Geneseo, N. Y., Oct. 30, 1807; educated at Harvard and Yale colleges; studied law with Daniel Webster; and was admitted to the bar in 1833, but never practised, having sufficient employment in the management of a large patrimonial estate. He was a member of the peace convention in 1861, and was one of the first to offer his services to the government when the Civil War broke out. When communication between Washington and Philadelphia was cut off in April, 1861, he chartered a vessel and filled it with supplies, with which he sailed for Annapolis with timely relief for Union soldiers there. In June he was volunteer aide on General McDowell's staff, and was noted for bravery in the battle of Bull Run. In August he was made brigadier-general of volunteers, and in March, 1862, military governor of the District of Columbia. In that year he was Republican candidate for governor of New York, but was defeated by Horatio Seymour. In December he commanded a division under Burnside in the battle of Fredericksburg; also in the battles of Chancellorsville and Gettysburg in 1863. Early in 1864 he was sent on special service to the Mississippi Valley; and at the opening of the campaign against Richmond he led a division of the 5th Corps, and was mortally wounded in the battle of the Wilderness, dying near Chancellorsville, Va., May 8, 1864.

Wadsworth, PELEG, military officer; born in Duxbury, Mass., May 6, 1748; graduated at Harvard College in 1769. As captain of minute-men, he joined the army gathering around Boston in the spring of 1775; became aide to General Ward; and afterwards adjutant-general for Massachusetts. He was in the battle of Long Island; and in 1777 was made brigadier-general of militia, serving, in 1779, as second in command in the Penobscot expedition, where he was taken prisoner. In February, 1781, he was captured and confined in the fort at Castine, whence he escaped in June. After the war he engaged in business in Portland and in surveying, and in 1792 he was elected a State Senator. From 1792 to 1806 he was a member of Congress. He died in Hiram, Me., Nov. 18, 1829.

Wadsworth, WILLIAM, military officer; born in Durham, Conn., in 1732; was an early settler, with his brother James, in western New York; and when the War of 1812–15 broke out he was a brigadier-general of New York militia. He served in that war from June 15 to Nov. 12, 1812, and was distinguished in the assault on Queenston Heights (Oct. 13, 1812), where he was in command when the Americans surrendered, giving up his sword in person to General Sheaffe. He died in Geneseo, N. Y., in February, 1833.

Wages and Hours of Labor. The following tables were compiled from reports of the Bureau of Labor. The first summarizes wages and hours of labor from the records of 4,034 principal manufacturing and mechanical industries, and also retail prices of the principal articles of food from the records of 993 retail merchants. This table does not include data for salaried employés in any industry. Relative numbers are computed on the basis of average for 1890–99 = 100.

WAGES, HOURS OF LABOR, ETC., 1890-1907.

Calendar year.	Employés.	Hours per week.	Wages per hour.	Full-time weekly earnings per employé.	Retail prices of food, weighted according to family consumption.	Purchasing power, measured by retail prices of food, of—	
						Hourly wages.	Full-time weekly earnings per employé.
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*
1890	94.8	100.7	100.3	101.0	102.4	97.9	98.6
1891	97.3	100.5	100.3	100.8	103.8	96.6	97.1
1892	99.2	100.5	100.8	101.3	101.9	98.9	99.4
1893	99.4	100.3	100.9	101.2	104.4	96.6	96.9
1894	94.1	99.8	97.9	97.7	99.7	98.2	98.0
1895	96.4	100.1	98.3	98.4	97.8	100.5	100.6
1896	98.6	99.8	99.7	99.5	95.5	104.4	104.2
1897	100.9	99.6	99.6	99.2	96.3	103.4	103.0
1898	106.4	99.7	100.2	99.9	98.7	101.5	101.2
1899	112.1	99.2	102.0	101.2	99.5	102.5	101.7
1900	115.6	98.7	105.5	104.1	101.1	104.4	103.0
1901	119.1	98.1	108.0	105.9	105.2	102.7	100.7
1902	123.6	97.3	112.2	109.2	110.9	101.2	98.5
1903	126.5	96.6	116.3	112.3	110.3	105.4	101.8
1904	125.7	95.9	117.0	112.2	111.7	104.7	100.4
1905	133.6	95.9	118.9	114.0	112.4	105.8	101.4
1906	142.9	95.4	124.2	118.5	115.7	107.3	102.4
1907	144.4	95.0	128.8	122.4	120.6	106.8	101.5

The second table shows for the industries, taken as a whole, the per cent. of increase or decrease in wages per hour, hours of labor per week, the purchasing power of wages, etc., in 1907 in the manufacturing and mechanical industries, as compared with the year preceding, back to and including 1890, and as compared with the average for the ten years, 1890 to 1899. Opposite each year in the table is given the per cent. of increase or decrease (indicated by + or —) in 1907, as com-

PERCENTAGES OF INCREASE OR DECREASE, 1907.

Calendar year.	Employés.	Hours per week.	Wages per hour.	Full-time weekly earnings per employé.	Retail prices of food, weighted according to family consumption.	Purchasing power, measured by retail prices of food, of—	
						Hourly wages.	Full-time weekly earnings per employé.
Average 1890–1899	+44.4	—5.0	+28.8	+22.4	+20.6	+ 6.8	+1.5
1890	+52.3	—5.7	+28.4	+21.2	+17.8	+ 9.1	+2.9
1891	+48.4	—5.5	+28.4	+21.4	+16.2	+10.6	+4.5
1892	+45.6	—5.5	+27.8	+20.8	+18.4	+ 8.0	+2.1
1893	+45.3	—5.3	+27.7	+20.9	+15.5	+10.6	+4.7
1894	+53.5	—4.8	+31.6	+25.3	+21.0	+ 8.8	+3.6
1895	+49.8	—5.1	+31.0	+24.4	+23.3	+ 6.6	+ .9
1896	+46.5	—4.8	+29.2	+23.0	+26.3	+ 2.3	—2.6
1897	+43.1	—4.6	+29.3	+23.4	+24.2	+ 3.3	—1.5
1898	+35.7	—4.7	+28.5	+22.5	+22.2	+ 5.2	+ .3
1899	+28.8	—4.2	+26.3	+20.9	+21.2	+ 4.2	— .2
1900	+24.9	—3.7	+22.1	+17.6	+19.3	+ 2.3	—1.5
1901	+21.2	—3.2	+19.3	+15.6	+14.6	+ 4.0	+ .8
1902	+16.8	—2.4	+14.8	+12.1	+ 8.7	+ 5.5	+3.0
1903	+14.2	—1.7	+10.7	+ 9.0	+ 9.3	+ 1.3	— .3
1904	+14.9	— .9	+10.1	+ 9.1	+ 8.0	+ 2.0	+1.1
1905	+ 8.1	— .9	+ 8.3	+ 7.4	+ 7.3	+ .9	+ .1
1906	+ 1.0	— .4	+ 3.7	+ 3.3	+ 4.2	— .5	— .9

Per cent. of increase (+) or decrease (—) in 1907 as compared with previous years.

pared with the year specified. Thus, for example, in the fourth column, opposite 1890, appears + 28.4, indicating that the increase in wages per hour in 1907, as compared with 1890, was 28.4 per cent.

Wagner, ARTHUR LOCKWOOD, military officer; born in Ottawa, Ill., March 16, 1853; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1875; promoted captain, April 2, 1892; major, Nov. 17, 1896; lieutenant-colonel and assistant adjutant-general, Feb. 26, 1898; was instructor of the art of war in the United States infantry and cavalry school at Fort Leavenworth, Kan., in 1886–97; served on the staff of General Miles during the war with Spain; detached for duty on the staff of Major-General Lawton until the fall of Santiago; ordered to the Philippines in December, 1899, where he was adjutant-general of the 1st Division of the 8th Army Corps, on the staff of Major-General Bates till April, 1900; was then appointed adjutant-general for the Southern Department of Luzon. His publications include *The Campaign of Königgrätz; Organization and Tactics; The Service of Security and Information; A Catechism of Outpost Duty; The Military Necessities of the United States.* He died in Ashville, N. C., June 17, 1905.

Wagner, FORT, a defensive work erected by the Confederates on the north end of Morris Island, S. C., about 2,600 yards from Fort Sumter. It was first assaulted by the Federals on July 11, 1863. Seven days afterwards a more determined assault was made after a bombardment by batteries and fleet, which failed with a loss to the Federals of 1,500 men. From this time it was under an almost continuous fire until Sept. 7, 1863, when it was evacuated, the Federals having advanced their parallels nearly to the fort.

Wagner, SAMUEL, lawyer; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Dec. 28, 1842; received a collegiate education; was almitted to the bar in 1866; was a founder of the Pennsylvania Museum and School of Industrial Art; and became president of the Wagner Institute of Science in 1885.

Wainwright, RICHARD, naval officer; born in Washington, D. C., Dec. 17, 1849; graduated at the United States Naval Academy in 1868; promoted lieutenant-commander, Sept. 16, 1884, and rear-admiral July 11, 1908. He was executive officer on the battle-ship *Maine* when she was destroyed in Havana Harbor in February, 1898; served in the war against Spain as commander of the *Gloucester;* was superintendent of the United States Naval Academy in 1900–02; commanded the *Newark* in 1902–04. See SANTIAGO, NAVAL BATTLE OF.

Destruction of Spanish Destroyers.— The following is Commander Wainwright's report on the destruction of the Spanish torpedo-boat destroyers *Furor* and *Pluton.*

Uniter States Steamship *Gloucester,*
OFF SANTIAGO DE CUBA,
July 6, 1898.

SIR,—I have the honor to report that at the battle of Santiago, on July 3, the officers and crew of the *Gloucester* were uninjured, and the vessel was not injured in hull or machinery, the battery only requiring some slight overhauling. It is now in excellent condition.

It was the plain duty of the *Gloucester* to look after the destroyers, and she was held back, gaining steam, until they appeared at the entrance. The *Indiana* poured in a hot fire from all her secondary battery upon the destroyers, but Captain Taylor's signal, "Gunboats, close in," gave security that we would not be fired upon by our own ships. Until the leading destroyer was injured our course was converging, necessarily, but as soon as she slackened her speed we headed directly for both vessels, firing both port and starboard batteries as the occasion offered.

All the officers and nearly all the men deserved my highest praise during the action. The escape of the *Gloucester* was due mainly to the accuracy and rapidity of the fire. The efficiency of this fire, as well as that of the ship generally, was largely due to the intelligent and unremitting efforts of the executive officer, Lieut. Harry P. Huse. The result is more to his credit when it is remembered that a large portion of the officers and men were untrained when the *Gloucester* was commissioned. Throughout the action he was on the bridge, and carried out my orders with great coolness.

That we were able to close in with the destroyers—and until we did so they were

not seriously injured—was largely due to the skill and constant attention of passed assistant Engineer George W. McElroy. The blowers were put on, and the speed increased to 17 knots without causing a tube to leak or a brass to heat. Lieut. Thomas C. Wood, Lieut. George H. Norman, Jr., and Ensign John T. Edson not only controlled the fire of the guns in their divisions and prevented waste of ammunition, but they also did some excellent shooting themselves.

Acting assistant Surgeon J. F. Bransford took charge of one of the guns, and fired it himself occasionally. Acting assistant Paymaster Alexander Brown had charge of the two Colt guns, firing one himself, and they did excellent work. Assistant Engineer A. M. Proctor carried my orders from the bridge, and occasionally fired a gun when I found it was not being served quite satisfactorily. All were cool and active at a time when they could have had but little hope of escaping uninjured.

Lieutenants Wood and Norman, Ensign Edson and assistant Engineer Proctor were in charge of the boats engaged in saving life. They all risked their lives repeatedly in boarding and remaining near the two destroyers and the two armored cruisers when their guns were being discharged by the heat and their magazines and boilers were exploding. They also showed great skill in landing and taking off the prisoners through the surf.

Of the men mentioned in the several reports, I would call special attention to John Bond, chief boatswain's mate. He would have been recommended to the department for promotion prior to his gallant conduct during the action of July 3. I would also recommend to your attention Robert P. Jennings, chief machinist, mentioned in the report of Mr. McElroy.

I believe it would have a good effect to recognize the skill of the men and the danger incurred by the engineer's force. I would also recommend that the acting appointments of those men mentioned by the officers in their reports may be made permanent.

The wounded and exhausted prisoners were well and skilfully tended by assistant Surgeon Bransford, assisted by Ensign Edson, who is also a surgeon.

The admiral, his officers and men, were treated with all consideration and care possible. They were fed and clothed as far as our limited means would permit.

Very Respectfully,

RICHARD WAINWRIGHT.

Lieutenant-Commander, U. S. N.

To the Commander-in-Chief, United States Naval Forces, North Atlantic Station.

Waite, DAVIS HANSOM, lawyer; born in Jamestown, N. Y., April 9, 1825; received an academic education; was a merchant in Wisconsin in 1850–57; member of the Wisconsin legislature in the latter year; settled in Kansas in 1876 and there practised law and carried on a ranch till 1879. He then removed to Leadville, Col., where he followed his profession till 1881, when he became editor of the *Union Era,* in Aspen, Col. In 1892 he was a member of the St. Louis conference which formed the People's party; and in 1893–94 governor of Colorado. He died at Aspen, Col., Nov. 27, 1901.

Waite, MORRISON REMICK, jurist; born in Lyme, Conn., Nov. 29, 1816; graduated at Yale College in 1837; settled in Maumee City, O., and was chosen a member of the Ohio legislature in 1849. In 1850 he made his residence at Toledo, and became very prominent at the bar in Ohio. He declined an election to Congress and a seat on the bench of the Superior Court of Ohio. He was one of the counsel for the United States at the Geneva tribunal of arbitration, was president of the Ohio constitutional convention in 1873, and on March 4, 1874, he was appointed chief-justice of the United States Supreme Court. He died in Washington, D. C., March 23, 1888.

Wake Island, an island in the North Pacific Ocean, about midway between Hawaii and Hong-Kong. On July 4, 1898, Gen. Francis V. Greene, with a few officers, while en route to Manila, went ashore on the island, made observations, found no traces of inhabitants, planted a record of possession, and raised the flag of the United States. On General Greene's report the United States government determined to take formal possession of the island, which was not known to have been inhabited for more than sixty years. Instructions were, accordingly, given to Commander Taussig, of the *Bennington,*

and on Jan. 17, 1899, that officer and his crew made a landing and erected a flag-staff. When this was in place the sailors were formed in two ranks, facing seaward, and, having called all to witness that the island was not in the possession of any other nation, Commander Taussig ordered the American flag to be raised by Ensign Wettengell. Upon reaching the truck the flag was saluted by twenty-one guns from the *Bennington*. After the salute the flag was nailed to the mast-head with battens, and a bra plate with the following inscription was screwed to the base of the flag-staff: "United States of America. William McKinley, President; John D. Long, Secretary of the Navy; Commander Edward D. Taussig, U. S. N., commanding the United States steamship *Bennington*, this 17th day of January, 1899, took possession of the atoll known as Wake Island, for the United States of America."

Wake Island is supposed to be the Desierta—that is, the "desert," and La Mira, "take care"—of the charts of the Spanish galleon taken by Anson in 1743. It was discovered in 1796 by the Prince William Henry, and is found on the chart that accompanies Perouse's voyages, published in 1797. It is often seen and reported as a reef or an island under various names—Wake, Week, Halcyon, Helsion, and Wilson being the most frequent. It is not to be confounded with Weeks Island, or with another Wake Island on the western coast of Patagonia.

Wake Island is nearly or quite awash in heavy gales; very low and steep to seaward; from 9 to 20 miles in circumference, according to wind and tide. The larger portion of it is a lagoon. The vegetation is very scanty, and there is no fresh water. The only food to be found consists of a few birds and plenty of fish. The island has been examined by Wilkes, of the United States exploring expedition; by English, of the United States navy; by Sproule, of the *Maria;* by Cargill, by Wood, by the missionary ship *Morning Star*, and by many others. It was described by Captain Sproule, in 1848, as a very dangerous spot lying immediately in the track of vessels from Peru, Central America, and the Sandwich Islands, and in a part of the ocean where vessels are generally running fast before the wind. "At 5 P.M.," he says, "the look-out on the foretop-gallant yard saw low land on the starboard bow. I went aloft and saw from the topsail yard a very low island, rather higher in the centre than at the ends, and covered with low bushes. It was dark before we approached it sufficiently near to make observations, but I am confident it would not be seen more than 5 miles off deck by daylight, and in a dark night never in time to avoid it."

The famous Wilkes expedition westward from San Francisco to New York hove to off Wake Island on the night of Dec. 19, 1841, and in the morning after breakfast a number of boats were sent ashore to make a survey. They reported a coral island, not more than 8 feet high, and apparently at times submerged. The fish in the lagoon included some fine mullet. The birds were few in number, and very tame, and "Mr. Peale found here the short-tailed albatross, and procured an egg from its nest." There were low shrubs upon the island, but no fresh water, and neither pandanus nor cocoanut trees. The outlying reef was very small.

The chief importance of the island to the United States is its convenient location as a station for the new cable from San Francisco to the Philippine Islands. See SUBMARINE CABLES.

Wakefield Estate, in Virginia, the birthplace of George Washington; about half a mile from the junction of Pope's Creek with the Potomac, in Westmoreland county. The house was destroyed before the Revolution, but upon its site George W. P. Custis placed a slab of freestone, June, 1815, with the simple inscription: "Here, the 11th of February (O. S.), 1732, George Washington was born."

Walbach, JOHN BAPTISTE DE BARTH, BARON DE, military officer; born in Münster, Germany, Oct. 3, 1766; was in the French military service; came to America in 1796; studied law with Alexander Hamilton; and entered the United States army as lieutenant of cavalry in 1799. In June, 1813, he was made assistant adjutant-general, with the rank of major, and did good service on the northern frontier in the War of 1812–15. He died in Baltimore, Md., June 10, 1857.

Walcot, CHARLES METON, playwright; born in London, England, in 1815; became an architect, but later turned his attention to the stage; came to the United States and appeared first in Charleston, S. C., in 1839; moved to Philadelphia in 1866. His original plays include *Washington, or Valley Forge; The Custom of the Country; The Haunted Man; and Hiawatha.* He died in Philadelphia, Pa., May 10, 1868.

Walcott, CHARLES DOOLITTLE, scientist; born in New York City March 31, 1850; became assistant geologist in the United States Geological Survey in 1879; presented the results of his Cambrian researches before the International Geological Congress in London in 1888; was director of the United States Geological Survey in 1894–1907; acting assistant secretary of the Smithsonian Institution in Washington, D. C., in 1897–98; secretary of the Carnegie Institution in 1902–05; and secretary of the Smithsonian Institution from 1907.

Waldenses (also called Valdenses, Vallenses, and Vaudois), a sect inhabiting the Cottian Alps, derive their name, according to some authors, from Peter de Waldo, of Lyons (1170). They were known, however, as early as 1100; their confession of faith published 1120. Their doctrine condemned by the council of Lateran, 1179. They had a translation of the Bible, and allied themselves to the Albigenses, whose persecution led to the establishment of the holy office or inquisition. Early in 1893 a delegation was sent to the United States to investigate the advantages of forming a settlement. It resulted in their purchasing several thousand acres of land in Burke county, N. C., and establishing a colony the same year, calling the place Waldese.

Waldersee, MARY ESTHER, COUNTESS VON; born in New York City Oct. 3, 1837; daughter of David Lee; spent her early years in Paris with her sister Josephine, the wife of Baron August von Waechter, ambassador from Würtemberg to France. There Mary became the wife of Prince Frederick of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Augustenburg-Noër, who had been exiled. The prince died July 2, 1865, soon after his marriage. In 1871 his widow married Albert, Count von Waldersee, who was appointed chief of the general staff of the German army to succeed Count von Moltke in 1888; field-marshal in 1895; and commander of the allied armies in China in 1900 (died March 5, 1904). The countess is credited with having brought about the marriage of Emperor William II. with the Princess Augusta Victoria.

Waldo, ALBIGENCE, surgeon; born in Pomfret, Conn., Feb. 27, 1750. At the outbreak of the Revolutionary War he was made a surgeon's mate in the army, but on account of feeble health was soon discharged. In December, 1776, he was appointed chief surgeon of the ship *Oliver Cromwell;* in April, 1777, joined the regiment of Col. J. Huntington as its surgeon. He won distinction at Monmouth and Valley Forge through his service in inoculating the troops against small-pox. He died in Windham county, Conn., Jan. 29, 1794.

Waldo, DANIEL, clergyman; born in Windham, Conn., Sept. 10, 1762; graduated at Yale College in 1788; was a soldier in the Revolutionary army; suffered the horrors of imprisonment in a sugar-house in New York and was pastor and missionary from 1792. At the age of ninety-three he was chaplain of the national House of Representatives. He died in Syracuse, N. Y., July 30, 1864.

Waldo, SAMUEL PUTNAM, author; born in Connecticut in 1780; published *Narrative of a Tour of Observation made During the Summer of 1817 by James Monroe, President of the United States, with Sketch of His Life; Memoirs of Gen. Andrew Jackson; Life of Stephen Decatur;* and *Biographical Sketches of Com. Nicholas Biddle, Paul Jones, Edward Preble,* and *Alexander Murray.* He died in Hartford, Conn., in March, 1826.

Waldo Patent, grant of thirty square miles on the Penobscot Bay and River, made by the Council for New England in 1630 to Beauchamp and others.

Waldron, RICHARD, military officer; born in Warwickshire, England, Sept. 2, 1615; came to Boston in 1635 and settled at Dover, N. H., in 1645. He represented that district from 1654 to 1676 and was seven years speaker. He was councillor and chief-justice and in 1681 was president. Being chief military leader in that region, he took an active part in King

Philip's War. Inviting Indians to Dover to treat with them, he seized several hundred of them, and hanged or sold into slavery 200. They fearfully retaliated thirteen years afterwards. Two apparently friendly Indians obtained a night's lodging at Waldron's house at Dover. At midnight they arose, opened the door, and admitted a party of Indians lying in wait. They seized Waldron, who, though seventy-four years of age, made stout resistance. They bound him in an arm-chair at the head of a table in the hall, when they taunted him, recalled his treachery, and tortured him to death, June 28, 1689.

Waldseemüller, MARTIN, cosmographer; born in Fribourg, Germany, about 1470; published an *Introduction to Cosmography, with the Four Voyages of Americus Vespucius* (1507), in which he proposed the name of "America" to the region discovered by Columbus. He died about 1530.

Wales, JAMES ALBERT, cartoonist; born in Clyde, O., Aug. 30, 1852; settled in Cleveland, where he made cartoons for the *Ledger* during the Presidential campaign of 1872. In the following year he removed to New York, where he became connected with *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, and afterwards with *Puck*, for both of which he drew some notable cartoons, especially on the political movements of the day; was one of the founders of the *Judge* and for several years its principal cartoonist. He died in New York City, Dec. 6, 1886.

Walhonding Canal. See CANALS.

Walke, HENRY, naval officer; born in Princess Anne county, Va., Dec. 24, 1808; entered the navy in 1827; served in the war against Mexico; and a bold and efficient commander in the naval warfare on the rivers in the valley of the Mississippi during the Civil War. He was particularly distinguished in the attacks on Fort Donelson, Island Number Ten, and in operations against Vicksburg. He was promoted commodore in 1866; rear-admiral in 1870; and was retired in 1871. He died in Brooklyn, N. Y., March 8, 1896.

Walker, ALEXANDER, journalist; born in Fredericksburg, Va., Oct. 13, 1819; graduated at the law department of the University of Virginia; settled in New Orleans, La., where he established a law practice and engaged in journalism; was editor at different times of the Louisiana *Democracy*, the *Delta*, the *Times*, the *Picayune*, and the *Herald*. His publications include *Jackson and New Orleans; Life of Andrew Jackson; History of the Battle of Shiloh; Duelling in Louisiana; The Story of the Plague, a History of the Yellow Fever Epidemic of 1852*, etc. He died in Fort Scott, Ark., Jan. 24, 1893.

Walker, AMASA, political economist; born in Woodstock, Conn., May 4, 1799; educated in North Brookfield, Mass.; Professor of Political Economy at Oberlin College in 1842–49, and at Amherst College in 1861–66; held various political offices in Massachusetts in 1848–62, when he was elected to Congress. He wrote *The Nature and Uses of Money and Mixed Currency*, and *Science and Wealth*. He died in North Brookfield, Mass., Oct. 29, 1875.

Walker, BENJAMIN, military officer; born in England in 1753; was a captain in the 2d New York Regiment at the beginning of the Revolutionary War; became aide to Baron Steuben, and then to Washington (1781–82); and after the war was secretary to Governor Clinton. He became a broker in New York City, and naval officer there during Washington's administration. From 1801 to 1803 he was a member of Congress. In 1797 he became agent for estates in western New York, and was long identified with the growth of Utica, where he died, Jan. 13, 1818.

Walker, CHARLES L., historian; born in Otsego county, N. Y., in 1814; taught school in 1830; removed to Grand Rapids, Mich., in 1836, when he became secretary of the territorial convention; was elected to the State legislature in 1840; removed to Springfield, Mass., in 1841, where he was admitted to the bar; and settled in Detroit, Mich., in 1851. He became Professor of Law in the University of Michigan in 1857, and a judge of the Wayne circuit court in 1867. He made a special study of history and wrote *Life of Cadillac; Michigan from 1796–1805; The Civil Administration of General Hull;* and *The Northwest Territory During the Revolution*. He died in Flint, Mich., Feb. 11, 1895.

Walker, CHARLES MANNING, journalist; born in Athens, O., Dec. 25, 1834; graduated at the University of Ohio in 1854; clerk in the United States Treasury Department in 1861–63, and fifth auditor there in 1862–69; head clerk of the Post-office Department in 1883–85; subsequently became associate editor of the *Indianapolis Journal.* He is the author of *History of Athens County, O.; First Settlement of Ohio at Marietta; Life of Oliver P. Morton; Life of Alvin P. Hovey,* etc.

Walker, FORT. See PORT ROYAL.

Walker, FRANCIS AMASA, military officer; born in Boston, Mass., July 2, 1840; graduated at Amherst in 1860; engaged in the military service in the spring of 1861, in the 15th Massachusetts Volunteers. In September he was assistant adjutant-general of Couch's brigade and adjutant-general of his division in August, 1862. In December he became colonel on the staff of the 2d Army Corps, serving in the Army of the Potomac. He was wounded at Chancellorsville; was made prisoner at Ream's Station, Va., and confined in Libby prison; and when exchanged in 1865 was compelled to resign on account of shattered health. He was in charge of the bureau of statistics in Washington, D. C.; superintendent of the census of 1870 and 1880; chief of the bureau of awards at the Centennial Exposition; Professor of Political Economy and History in the Sheffield Scientific School in 1873–81; and then became president of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. He died in Boston, Mass., Jan. 5, 1897.

Walker, HENDERSON, colonial governor; born in North Carolina in 1660; became a judge of the Supreme Court and president of the council; was governor of North Carolina in 1699–1704. Referring to his administration George Bancroft writes: "While England was engaged in world-wide wars, here the inhabitants multiplied and spread in the enjoyment of peace and liberty." He died near Edenton, N. C., April 14, 1704. His tombstone is marked with the epitaph "North Carolina, during his administration, enjoyed tranquillity."

Walker, SIR HOVENDEN, military officer; born in Somersetshire, England, about 1660; became a captain in the navy in 1692, and rear-admiral of the white in 1710. The next year he was knighted by Queen Anne. He made an attempt to capture Quebec in 1711, commanding the naval armament sent for that purpose (see QUEBEC). Returning to England, his ship, the *Edgar,* blew up at Spithead, when nearly all the crew perished. This accident and the disastrous expedition to Quebec drew upon him almost unqualified censure, and he was dismissed from the service. He afterwards settled upon a plantation in South Carolina; but returned to Great Britain, and "died of a broken heart" in Dublin, Ireland, in January, 1726.

Walker, JAMES BRADFORD RICHMOND, clergyman; born in Taunton, Mass., April 15, 1821; graduated at Brown University in 1841 and at Andover Theological Seminary in 1846; was ordained pastor in the Congregational Church in Bucksport, Me., in 1847; held charges in Holyoke, Mass., in 1855–64; and in Hartford, Conn., in 1864–67. He then turned his attention to literature. His publications include *Memorial of the Walkers of the Old Plymouth Colony,* and *The Genealogy of John Richmond.* He died in 1885.

JOHN GRIMES WALKER.

Walker, JOHN GRIMES, naval officer; born in Hillsboro, N. H., March 20, 1835; graduated at the United States Naval

Academy in 1856. In the Civil War he took part in the capture of New Orleans, in operations against Vicksburg, almost all the battles on the Mississippi River in 1862 and 1863; and commanded the gunboat *Shawmut* in the capture of Wilmington, N. C. He was secretary of the lighthouse board in 1873–78; chief of the bureau of navigation in 1881–89; was promoted commodore in 1889 and rear-admiral in 1894; was then assigned to command the Pacific Station; and was retired in 1897. He was president of the naval retiring board in 1895; chairman of the commission for the location of a deep-water harbor on the coast of southern California in 1896–97; president of the Nicaragua Canal commission in 1897–99, of the Isthmian Canal commission 1899, and of the new Canal commission 1904. He died in York Beach, Maine, Sept. 16, 1907.

Walker, JOSEPH BURBEEN, agriculturist; born in Concord, N. H., June 12, 1822; graduated at Yale College in 1844; admitted to the bar in 1847, but later abandoned law and devoted himself to agriculture and literature. His publications include *Land Drainage; Forests of New Hampshire; Ezekiel Webster Dimond; History of Town Meeting-house; Rodgers, the Ranger; Birth of the Federal Constitution;* etc.

Walker, JOSEPH REDDEFORD, guide; born in Knoxville, Tenn., in 1798; settled in Jackson county, Mo., in 1818. His career as a guide on the frontier began in 1822. He led Captain Bonneville's expedition to the Rocky Mountains in 1832; guided another expedition from Great Salt Lake to California in 1833; discovered the Yosemite Valley, Yosemite Lake, and Walker River in the latter year; and Walker's Pass in 1834. He died in Ignacio Valley, Cal., Oct. 27, 1876.

Walker, LEROY POPE, jurist; born near Huntsville, Ala., July 8, 1817; was speaker of the Alabama House of Representatives in 1847–50; judge of the State circuit court in 1850–53; Confederate Secretary of War in 1861–62; and later a brigadier-general. After the war he resumed practice in Huntsville, Ala., where he died, Aug. 22, 1884.

Walker, ROBERT JAMES, financier; born in Northumberland, Pa., July 23, 1801; graduated at the University of Pennsylvania in 1819. In 1826 he settled in Natchez, Miss.; was United States Senator from 1837 to 1845, being a Democratic leader in that body; warmly supported the financial measures of President Van Buren; and had great influence over President Tyler, counselling the vigorous steps which led to the annexation of Texas. During the administration of President Polk he was Secretary of the Treasury, and in 1857–58 was governor of Kansas Territory. He resigned, being "unwilling," he said, "to aid in forcing slavery on that Territory by fraud and forgery." In 1863–64 he was financial agent of the United States in Europe, effecting the sale of $250,000,000 of five-twenty bonds, and defeating the second authorized Confederate loan of $175,000,000. He was an efficient advocate of the Pacific Railroad and of free-trade. His celebrated report in favor of free-trade was reprinted by order of the British House of Commons. He died in Washington, D. C., Nov. 11, 1869.

Walker, THOMAS, patriot; born in Gloucester county, Va., Jan. 25, 1715; educated at William and Mary College; studied medicine and practised in Fredericksburg, Va. In 1750 he travelled west and was probably the first white man to pass the present boundaries of Kentucky. He was commissary-general under Washington in General Braddock's army, and was present at the latter's defeat. In 1775 he was elected to the Virginia House of Burgesses, where he served on the second committee of safety; in 1777 was appointed with his son, Col. John Walker, to visit the Indians in Pittsburg, Pa., for the purpose of gaining their friendship for the Americans; and in 1778 was made president of the commission to settle the boundary between Virginia and North Carolina. Walker Mountains in southwestern Virginia were named after him. He died in Albemarle county, Va., Nov. 9, 1794.

His son, JOHN, legislator; born in Albemarle county, Va., Feb. 13, 1744, was an aide to Washington during the Revolutionary War, and was by him recommended to Patrick Henry on Feb. 24, 1777, for "ability, honor, and prudence." He succeeded William Grayson in the United States Senate, where he served in May-

December, 1790. He died in Orange county, Va., Dec. 2, 1809.

Walker, TIMOTHY, jurist; born in Wilmington, Mass., Dec. 1, 1806; graduated at Harvard College in 1826; admitted to the bar in 1831, and began practice in Cincinnati, O.; Professor of Law in Cincinnati College in 1835–44; established the *Western Law Journal* in 1843, and was its editor for several years. He was the author of *An Introduction to American Law; On the History and General Character of the State of Ohio; John Quincy Adams; The Reform Spirit of the Day; Daniel Webster,* etc. He died in Cincinnati, O., Jan. 15, 1856.

Walker, WILLIAM, filibuster; born in Nashville, Tenn., May 8, 1824; was an editor in New Orleans for a while; went to California in 1850; and in 1853 organized an expedition to invade a Mexican territory. Making war on the government of Honduras, he was captured, condemned by a court-martial, and shot at Truxillo, Honduras, Sept. 12, 1860. See NICARAGUA.

Walker, WILLIAM H. T., military officer; born in Georgia in October, 1816; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1837; was assigned to Florida, where he was thrice wounded during the battle of Okeechobee, Dec. 25, 1837; promoted captain in 1845; took part in all of the important battles of the Mexican War, winning distinction at Contreras, Churubusco, and Molino del Rey; was brevetted lieutenant-colonel; and was instructor of military tactics and commandant of cadets at the United States Military Academy in 1854–56. He joined the Confederate army in 1861; was made major-general, and served chiefly in the West. He was killed in the battle of Decatur, Ga., July 26, 1864.

Walker's Expedition. See WALKER, WILLIAM.

Walking Purchase, THE. In 1682 William Penn purchased of the Indians a tract of land in the present Bucks and Northampton counties, bounded on the east by the Delaware River, and in the interior at a point as far as a man could walk in three days. Penn and the Indians started on the walk, beginning at the mouth of Neshaminy Creek. At the end of a walk of a day and a half Penn concluded that it was as much land as he wanted, and a deed was given for the lands to that point — about 40 miles from the starting-place—in 1686. This agreement was confirmed by the Delawares in 1718, the year when Penn died. White settlers, however, went over this boundary to the Lehigh Hills. The Indians became uneasy, and, to put an end to disputes, a treaty was concluded in 1737, by which the limits of the tract were defined as in the deed of 1682—not beyond the Lehigh Hills, or about 40 miles from the place of the beginning of the "walk." It was then proposed that a "walk" of a "day and a half," as agreed upon by Penn, should be again undertaken.

Thomas and Richard Penn, sons of William Penn, were then proprietors, and, contrary to the spirit of their father, they devised a plan to cheat the Indians out of a large tract of most valuable land at the forks of the Delaware and the Minisink country beyond. They advertised for the most expert walkers in the province. Three were selected—Edward Marshall, James Yeates, and Solomon Jennings—and the covetous proprietors caused them to violate the spirit of the agreement by almost running much of the way and being fed by persons who accompanied them on horseback, the walkers eating as they moved on. They started from the present Wrightsville on the morning of Sept 19, 1737, going northerly along the old Durham Road to Durham Creek; then westerly to the Lehigh, which they crossed near Bethlehem; then northwesterly, passing through Bethlehem into Allen county; and halted at sunset near an Indian town. The next morning they passed the Blue Mountains at the Lehigh Water-gap, and at noon completed the "walk," at a distance of about 70 miles from the starting-point, instead of 40 miles in Penn's time, and as the Indians expected. Then, by running a line northeasterly, instead of more directly from that point to the Delaware, it embraced the coveted region of the forks of the Delaware and the Minisink lands. The Indians protested against the intended fraud on the first day of the walk. The result exasperated them. The greedy proprietors had obtained about 1,200 square miles of territory, when they were not entitled to more than 800. This

transaction alienated the Delawares ,and it was one of the chief causes that impelled them to join the French against the English in 1755.

Walk-in-the-Water, or, MY-EE-RAH, chief of the Wyandotte tribe of Huron Indians. He tried to persuade Gen. William Hull to accept his services in the War of 1812, but that officer, unwilling to use savages, declined his offer. Though he was later compelled through circumstances to join the English, he influenced a number of tribes to remain neutral. Subsequently with his associates he absolutely refused to aid the English and deserted at Chatham, Canada. He then offered to ally himself to Gen. William H. Harrison, but his services were again declined, and he returned to the Detroit River. He died about 1817.

Wall, JAMES WALTER, legislator; born in Trenton, N. J., May 26, 1820; graduated at Princeton College in 1838; admitted to the bar in 1841; settled in Burlington, N. J., in 1847; was alleged to have interfered with the liberty of the press during the early part of the Civil War and to have made an offer of 20,000 rifles to the "Knights of the Golden Circle," to be used against the United States; appointed to fill an unexpired term in the United States Senate, and served from Jan. 21 till March 3, 1863. He died in Elizabeth, N. J., June 9, 1872.

Wall Street, a noted thoroughfare in the part of New York City extending from Broadway at Trinity Church to the East River, about half a mile long. This title, however, designates a region extending about a quarter of a mile on either side of the greater part of Wall Street proper. The locality is famous the world over for its financial institutions, which include a large number of banking houses, the United States Sub-Treasury, the Custom-house, the Stock Exchange, etc. The name is derived from a wall of palisades which was built in Dutch colonial days as a defence against the Indians. The location of great financial houses here is due to the fact that the principal early government buildings were erected on the street. After the adoption of the Constitution of the United States the first Congress met here in a building on the site of the present Sub-Treasury. On the porch of that building George Washington was inaugurated the first President of the republic. A fine statue of Washington marks the place.

Wallabout Bay, New York harbor, known as the Brooklyn navy-yard. A portion of the government reservation not needed for navy-yard purposes is used as a public shipping basin and pier system. The national government made its first purchase of land here in 1801, and at one time the reservation covered nearly 200 acres of land. See BROOKLYN.

Wallace, DAVID DUNCAN, educator; born in Columbia, S. C., May 23, 1874; graduated at Wofford College in 1894; elected professor of history and economics at Wofford College in 1899. He is the author of *Constitutional History of South Carolina, 1725 to 1775; Arrival of the Tea, and the Origin of the Extra-Legal Organs of Revolution in South Carolina,* etc.; and editor of *McCrady's South Carolina Under the Proprietary Government.*

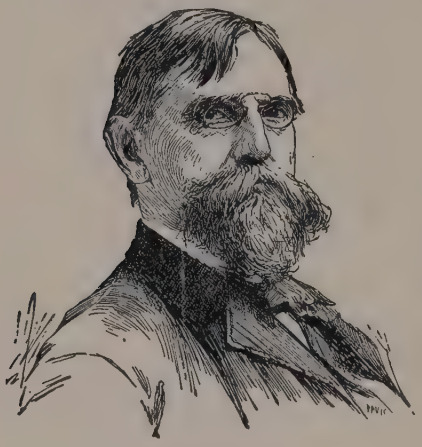
Wallace, SIR JAMES, naval officer; commanded the British fleet at Newport, R. I., in 1775, where he had a laconic correspondence with CAPT. ABRAHAM WHIPPLE (*q. v.*). He bore General Vaughan's marauding land force up the Hudson River in October, 1777; and in 1779 was captured by D'Estaing. In Rodney's battle with De Grasse, on April 12, 1782, he commanded the *Warrior.* He died in London, March 6, 1803.

Wallace, JOHN WILLIAM, lawyer; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Feb. 17, 1815; graduated at the University of Pennsylvania in 1833, and later was admitted to the bar; president of the Pennsylvania Historical Society in 1860–84. His publications include *Reporters; Cases Argued in the United States Supreme Court; An Old Philadelphian, Col. William Bradford of 1776,* etc. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., Jan. 13, 1884.

Wallace, JOSEPH, lawyer; born in Carroll county, Ky., Sept. 30, 1834; received a collegiate education; admitted to the bar in 1858 and engaged in practice in Springfield, Ill. He was the author of *Biography of Col. Edward D. Baker; History of Illinois and Louisiana Under the French Rule,* etc. He died in 1904.

Wallace, LEWIS, military officer and author; born in Brookville, Ind., April 10,

1827; son of Gov. David Wallace; studied law, and began practice in Crawfordsville, Ind. He served as lieutenant of Indiana volunteers in the war with Mexico, and afterwards resumed his profession. He served one term in the State Senate; and when the Civil War broke out he was appointed adjutant-general of Indiana. Soon afterwards he was made colonel of the 11th (Zouave) Indiana Volunteers, with which he performed signal



LEWIS WALLACE.

service in western Virginia (see ROMNEY, SKIRMISH AT). When he fell back to Cumberland, after his dash on Romney, the Confederates took heart and advanced, 4,000 strong — infantry, cavalry, and artillery—under Colonel McDonald. They pushed on to New Creek and destroyed the bridge of the Baltimore and Ohio Railway there. They pressed on, destroyed all communication between Cumberland and Grafton, and completely isolated Wallace. He had neither cannon nor cavalry, and for twenty-one days his men had only twenty-one rounds of cartridges apiece. He prepared to retreat to Bedford, Pa., if attacked. He could not hold Cumberland, and sent his sick and baggage in that direction.

Then he boldly led his regiment out upon the same road, halted, changed front, and prepared for battle, believing that if the Confederates should enter Cumberland they would scatter in search of plunder; and in that case he would rush into the town and defeat them in detail. Informed of Wallace's bold stand, the Confederates halted within 5 miles of Cumberland, and at night hastened to Romney. Wallace retired to Cumberland and appealed to McClellan, Morris, and Patterson for reinforcements, but none could be spared, for there was danger and weakness at all points. The governor of Pennsylvania sent him ammunition and forwarded two regiments of the Pennsylvania Reserves to the borders of that State to assist the Indianians if they should be attacked. That gallant regiment successfully guarded the railway for about 100 miles, for the Confederates felt a wholesome fear of these Zouaves, who were often engaged in little skirmishes. Wallace had impressed thirteen horses into his service and mounted thirteen picked men of his regiment. While these were on a scout on June 26 they attacked forty-one mounted Confederates, killing eight of them, chasing the remainder 2 miles, and capturing seventeen of their horses. On their way back they were attacked by seventy-five mounted men. They had a terrible hand-to-hand fight that ceased only when night came on. The Zouaves had only one man killed, and the rest made their way back to camp in the darkness. For his eminent services in that region for three months Colonel Wallace was rewarded with the commission of brigadier - general. For his bravery and vigilance in guarding the Baltimore and Ohio Railway, the great line of communication with the West, Wallace was heartily commended by McClellan and others.

As brigadier-general of volunteers he led a division in the siege and capture of Fort Donelson. For his services on that occasion he was promoted to major-general. In the battle of Shiloh he was conspicuous for gallantry. In command at Baltimore, Md., in the summer of 1864, he gallantly held in check a large Confederate force, under General Early, endeavoring to strike Washington, until the arrival of troops that secured the latter place from capture (see MONOCACY, BATTLE OF.) After the war he resumed his profession. In 1878 he was governor of New Mexico, and in 1881–85 was United

States minister to Turkey. He wrote *Ben-Hur; The Boyhood of Christ; The Prince of India; Life of Gen. Benjamin Harrison;* etc. He died in Crawfordsville, Ind., Feb. 15, 1905.

Wallace, William Harvey Lamb, military officer; born in Urbana, O., July 8, 1821; served in the war with Mexico, in Hardin's regiment; and was State's attorney for the ninth circuit of Illinois, in 1853. In May, 1861, he became colonel of the 11th Illinois Volunteers. He commanded a brigade in McClernand's division at the capture of Fort Donelson, and was made brigadier-general of volunteers. On the first day of the battle of Shiloh (*q. v.*) he was mortally wounded, and died in Savannah, Tenn., April 10, 1862.

Wallack, James William, actor; born in Lambeth, England, Aug. 24, 1794; began acting as a child; visited the United States frequently and established Wallack's Lyceum in 1852 and Wallack's Theatre in 1861 in New York City, where he died Dec. 25, 1864. His son, John Lester, born in New York City, Jan. 1, 1820, succeeded his father as owner of Wallack's Theatre in 1864, and was long a popular actor. He died in Stamford, Conn., Sept. 6, 1888.

Wallen, Henry Davies, military officer; born in Savannah, Ga. April 19, 1819; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1840; served in the Seminole War in Florida in 1840–42; was wounded at the battle of Palo Alto in the Mexican War; served through the Civil War; brevetted brigadier-general in 1865; promoted colonel in 1873; and was retired in the following year. He died in New York City, Dec. 2, 1886.

Walley, John, military officer; born in London, England, about 1644. He led the first expedition against the French and Indians in Canada, Feb. 12, 1689; was lieutenant to Sir William Phipps on a similar expedition in August, 1690; landed near Quebec with 1,200 men, and after a daring but ineffectual attack re-embarked; was one of the founders of Bristol, Conn. His diary of the expedition against Canada was published in the *History of Massachusetts* by Thomas Hutchinson. He died in Boston, Mass., Jan. 11, 1712.

Wallis, Sir Provo William Parry, British naval officer; born in Halifax, Nova Scotia, April 12, 1791. In 1813 he was second lieutenant on the *Shannon* which captured the United States frigate *Chesapeake* off Boston, on June 1, in the engagement in which Capt. James Lawrence was killed. The captain of the *Shannon* being severely wounded and the first lieutenant killed, Wallis took command and carried the *Chesapeake* to Halifax. For his part in the encounter he was promoted commander. He died near Chichester, England, Feb. 13, 1892.

Wallis, Severn Teackle, lawyer; born in Baltimore, Md., Sept. 8, 1816; graduated at St. Mary's College, Baltimore, in 1832; admitted to the bar in 1837; special United States agent to Spain in 1849 to investigate the title to public lands in east Florida; elected to the Maryland house of delegates in 1861; became chairman of the committee on federal relations; opposed the Civil War, and spoke openly against the national government; was arrested with others in September, 1861, and imprisoned for over fourteen months. His publications include *Glimpses of Spain; Life and Character of George Peabody,* etc. He died in 1894.

Walloons, a people which inhabited the southern Belgic provinces and adjoining parts of France, and numbered, at the time of their dispersion by persecution (1580), over 2,000,000. They were of a mixed Gallic and Teutonic blood, and most of them spoke the old French dialect.

Having heard of the fertility of the Western continent, some of them wished to emigrate thither, and a proposition was made to the Virginia Company to have them favor a settlement there. Negotiations to that end failed. Hearing of this, the directors of the Dutch West India Company made them satisfactory offers, and arrangements were soon made for the emigration of several families to New Netherland. In the spring of 1623 the ship *New Netherland,* of 260 tons burden, Capt. Cornelius Jacobus May, sailed from the Texel with thirty families, chiefly Walloons, for Manhattan. These landed on a morning in May, and were welcomed by Indians and traders. May, who was to remain as governor of the colony, then read his commission and as-

sumed the functions of his office. The emigrants soon dispersed and formed separate settlements. Some of the Walloons settled on Long Island, on the borders of a cove at the site of the present navy-yard, which soon became known as the "Waalbogt" (corrupted to Wallabout), or Walloon's Cove. There, in June, 1625, Sarah Rapelje was born—the first ascertained offspring of European parentage in New Netherland. See NEW YORK, COLONY OF.

Walpole Grant. In 1772 George III. granted the Walpole Company a tract of land covering 2,500,000 acres east of the Scioto River, between 38° and 40° north latitude.

Walsh, ROBERT, author; born in Baltimore, Md., in 1784; received a collegiate education; admitted to the bar and began practice in Philadelphia, Pa., but later abandoned law and engaged in journalism; founded the *National Gazette* in 1819, and was connected with it till 1836; editor of the *American Review* in 1827–37; United States consul at Paris, France, in 1845–51. He was the author of *Essay on the Future State of Europe; Appeal from the Judgment of Great Britain Respecting the United States; The Select Speeches of George Canning; The Select Speeches of Windham and William Huskisson,* etc. He died in Paris, France, Feb. 7, 1859.

Walter, THOMAS USTICK, architect; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Sept. 4, 1804. He built the Moyamensing Penitentiary, the Girard College, the extensions of the national Capitol, the Patent Office, Treasury, and Post-office buildings, the dome of the Capitol, and the Government Hospital for the Insane. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., Oct. 30, 1887.

Walthall, EDWARD CARY, legislator; born in Richmond, Va., April 4, 1831; admitted to the bar in 1852 and began practice in Coffeeville, Miss.; elected attorney of the tenth Mississippi judicial district in 1856 and 1859; joined the Confederate army as lieutenant in the 15th Mississippi Infantry in 1861; promoted brigadier-general in December, 1862, and major-general in 1864; distinguished himself in the battle of Missionary Ridge and in the action at Nashville, where he covered the retreat of Gen. John B. Hood and prevented the capture of his army by Gen. George H. Thomas. He resumed law practice in Grenada, Miss., in 1871; was United States Senator in 1885–98, with exception of the period from January, 1894, to March, 1895. He died in Washington, D. C., April 21, 1898.

Walton, GEORGE, signer of the Declaration of Independence; born in Frederick county, Va., in 1740; was early apprenticed to a carpenter, who would not allow him a candle to read by; but he found a substitute in pine knots. He was admitted to the bar in Georgia in 1774, and was one of four persons who called a meeting at Savannah (July 27, 1774) to consult upon measures for the defence of the liberties of their country. Mr. Walton was one of the committee who prepared a petition to the King; also patriotic resolutions adopted on that occasion. From February, 1776, to October, 1781, he was a delegate in Congress from Georgia, and warmly favored the resolution for independence. As colonel of militia, he assisted in defending Savannah in December, 1778, where he was dangerously wounded, made prisoner, and kept so until September, 1779. In 1779 and 1789 he was chosen governor of Georgia; in 1783 was appointed chief-justice of the State; and in 1795–96 was United States Senator. He died in Augusta, Ga., Feb. 2, 1804.

Walworth, ELLEN HARDIN (MRS.), author; born in Jacksonville, Ill.; received an academic education; one of the three founders of the National Society of the Daughters of the American Revolution; director-general of the Woman's National War Relief Association of 1898; served at the field hospital of Fort Monroe, where she met with nurses, supplies, etc., the first wounded brought from Santiago. Her publications include *Battles of Saratoga; Parliamentary Rules;* and the essays, *Battle of Buena Vista; Preservation of National Archives; Colonial Women;* and *Field Work for Amateurs.*

Walworth, REUBEN HYDE, jurist; born in Bozrah, Conn., Oct. 26, 1788; admitted to the bar in 1809 and began practice in Plattsburg, N. Y. During the British invasion of Plattsburg, in September, 1814, he was aide to Gen. Benjamin Mooers, by whom he was assigned to view the naval fight from the shore and to report the re-

sults. He held a seat in Congress in 1821–23; was judge of the fourth judicial district of New York in 1823–28; and chancellor of New York State in 1828–48. In the latter year the court of chancery was abolished by the adoption of the new constitution. He published *Rules and Orders of the New York Court of Chancery*, and *Hyde Genealogy* (2 volumes). He died in Saratoga Springs, N. Y., Nov. 27, 1867.

His son, MANSFIELD TRACY, born in Albany, N. Y., Dec. 3, 1830, graduated at Union College in 1849 and at the Harvard Law School in 1852; was admitted to the bar in 1855, but soon abandoned law and devoted himself to literature. He was the author of *Life of Chancellor Livingston* and many novels. He was shot and killed by his son, who claimed that he committed the act to save his mother's life, in New York City, June 3, 1873. The trial of the son is famous in American law history. He was acquitted on the plea of insanity and was placed in an asylum.

Wampanoag, or Pokanoket, Indians; one of the most powerful of the Massachusetts tribes of the Algonquian nation. Massasoit was their sachem when the English came to the New England shores. Their domain extended over nearly the whole of southern Massachusetts, from Cape Cod to Narraganset Bay, and at one time the tribe numbered 30,000. Just before the landing of the Pilgrims a terrible disease had reduced them to less than 1,000. While Massasoit lived the Wampanoags were friendly to the English; but a growing discontent ripened into war in 1675, led by King Philip, a son of Massasoit, which involved many of the New England Indians. The result was the destruction of the tribe. King Philip's son, while yet a boy, with others, was sent to the West Indies and sold as a slave.

Wampum, an Indian currency, consisting of cylindrical white, blue, and black beads, half an inch long, made from certain parts of sea-shells. The shores of Long Island Sound abounded in these shells, and the Pequods and Narragansets grew "rich and potent" by their abundance of wampum, which was much in demand, first for ornament, and afterwards as currency among the interior tribes. The settlers at Plymouth first learned the use and value of wampum from the Dutch at Manhattan, and found it profitable in trade with the Eastern Indians; for the shells of which it was made were not common north of Cape Cod. It soon became a circulating medium, first in the Indian traffic, and then among the colonists generally. Three of the black beads, or six of the white, passed for a penny. They were strung in known parcels for convenience of reckoning — a penny, threepence, a shilling, and five shillings in white; twopence, sixpence, two-and-sixpence, and ten shillings in black. A fathom of white wampum was worth ten shillings, or two dollars and a half; a fathom of black, twice as much. Wampum was also used in the form of belts in making treaties, they being pledges of fidelity.

Wanamaker, JOHN, merchant; born in Philadelphia, Pa., July 11, 1838; received a public school education; was errand-boy in a book-store in 1852; retail salesman of clothing in 1856–61; then founded, in conjunction with Nathan Brown, the clothing house of Wanamaker & Brown, in Philadelphia, Pa., and the department store under the same firm name in 1869; and later established a department store on the up-town premises of the firm of A. T. Stewart & Co., in New York. He was United States Postmaster-General in 1889–93. Mr. Wanamaker founded and became superintendent of the Bethany Presbyterian Sunday-school in Philadelphia in 1858, which has since grown to be the largest one in the United States.

Wanton, JOSEPH, governor; born in Newport, R. I., in 1705; graduated at Harvard College in 1751 and engaged in mercantile business; was elected governor in 1769. He was appointed by the English government to investigate the burning of the ship *Gaspee* by the Whigs in 1773, and was also made superintendent of the British soldiers during their occupation of Newport. These and other causes made him an object of suspicion, and in 1775 the Assembly stripped him of all power and placed the executive prerogative in the hands of Deputy-Gov.

Nicholas Cooke. Governor Wanton died in Newport, R. I., July 19, 1780.

War, ARTICLES OF. See ARTICLES OF WAR.

War, BOARD OF. On June 13, 1776, the Congress appointed John Adams, Roger Sherman, Benjamin Harrison, James Wilson, and John Rutledge commissioners constituting a board of war and ordnance, and appointed Richard Peters their secretary. This was the germ of the War Department of the government. It had a general supervision of all military affairs; kept exact records of all transactions, with the names of officers and soldiers; and had charge of all prisoners of war and of all correspondence on the subject of the army. The secretary and clerks were required to take an oath of secrecy before entering upon their duties. The salary of the secretary was fixed at $800 a year; of the clerks, $266.66. A seal was adopted. Owing to the extent

SEAL OF THE BOARD OF WAR.

of the field of war, subordinate boards were authorized in 1778. In November, 1777, a new board was organized, consisting of three persons not members of Congress, to sit in the place where that body should be in session, each member to be paid a salary of $4,000 a year. In 1778 another organization of the board occurred. It then consisted of two members of Congress and three who were not members, any three to constitute a quorum. Then the salary of the secretary of the board was increased to $2,000. On the new organization of the government in 1781, the Congress resolved to create a Secretary of War, and General Lincoln was chosen. His salary was $5,000 a year. He held the office until the close of the war. After that, military affairs were managed by a board of war until the organization of the government under the national Constitution, when they were placed under the supreme control of a Secretary of War. See BOARD OF ORDNANCE AND FORTIFICATION; BOARD OF STRATEGY.

War Democrats, those members of the Democratic party who supported the Union cause during the Civil War. In many instances they were obliged to support Republican candidates.

War Department, one of the executive branches of the United States government, the chief of which is popularly known as the Secretary of War.

He is charged by law with the supervision of all estimates of appropriations for the expenses of the department, of all purchases of army supplies, of all expenditures for the support, transportation, and maintenance of the army. He also has supervision of the United States Military Academy at West Point and of military education in the army, of the board of ordnance and fortification, and of the publication of the *Official Records of the War of the Rebellion.* He has charge of all matters relating to national defence and sea-coast fortifications, army ordnance, river and harbor improvements, the prevention of obstruction to navigation, and the establishment of harbor lines, and approves all plans and locations of bridges to be constructed over the navigable waters of the United States. He also has charge of the military posts, and of all matters relating to leases, licenses, etc., and all other privileges upon land under the control of the War Department.

The functions of the department are exercised by means of a number of bureaus, the chief of which are those under the supervision of the chief of staff, adjutant-general, inspector-general, quartermaster-general, commissary-general of subsistence, surgeon-general, paymaster-general, chief of engineers, chief of ordnance, judge-advocate-general, chief signal officer, the chief of the bureau of insular affairs, and the officer in charge of public buildings. See CABINET, PRESIDENT'S.

War of 1812, the popular name of the second war between the United States and Great Britain. Blessed with prosperity and dreading war, the people of the United States submitted to many acts of tyranny from Great Britain and France rather than become involved in armed conflicts with them. Consequently, the government of the United States was only nominally independent. Socially and commercially, the United States tacitly acknowledged their dependence on Europe, and especially upon England; and the latter was rapidly acquiring a dangerous political interest and influence in American affairs when the war broke out. The war begun in 1775 was really only the first great step towards independence; the war begun in 1812 first thoroughly accomplished the independence of the United States. Franklin once heard a person speaking of the Revolution as the war of independence, and reproved him, saying, "Sir, you mean the *Revolution;* the war of *independence* is yet to come. It was a war *for* independence, but not *of* independence."

When it was determined, early in 1812, to declare war against Great Britain, preparations were at once made for the crisis. In February the congressional committee of ways and means reported a financial scheme, which was adopted. It was a system adapted to a state of war for three years. It contemplated the support of war expenses wholly by loans, and the ordinary expenses of the government, including interest on the national debt, by revenues. The estimated expense of the war the first year was $11,000,000. Duties on imports were doubled, a direct tax of $3,000,000 was levied, and an extensive system of internal duties and excise was devised. In March, Congress authorized a loan of $11,000,000, at an annual interest not to exceed 6 per cent., reimbursable in twelve years. When war was declared, only little more than half the loan was taken, and the President was authorized to issue treasury notes, payable in one year, bearing an annual interest of $5\frac{3}{5}$ per cent. Measures were also devised for strengthening the military force. It was weak when war was declared. Congress passed an act, June 26, 1812, for the consolidation of the old army with new levies, the regular force to consist of twenty regiments of foot, four of artillery, two of dragoons, and one of riflemen, which, with engineers and artificers, would make a force of 36,700 men. Little reliance could be placed on the militia, who would not be compelled, by law, to go beyond the bounds of their respective States. The navy was very weak, in comparison with that of the enemy, the acknowledged "mistress of the seas." It consisted of only twenty vessels, exclusive of 170 gunboats, and actually carrying an aggregate of little more than 500 guns.

The following is a list of forts in existence when war was declared in 1812, and their location: Fort Sumner, Portland, Me.; Fort William and Mary, Portsmouth, N. H.; Fort Lily, Gloucester, Cape Ann; Fort Pickering, Salem, Mass.; Fort Seawall, Marblehead, Mass.; Fort Independence, Boston Harbor; Fort Wolcott, near Newport, R. I.; Fort Adams, Newport Harbor; Fort Hamilton, near Newport; North Battery, a mile northwest of Fort Wolcott; Dumplings Fort, entrance to Narraganset Bay, R. I.; Tonomy Hill, a mile east of North Battery, R. I.; Fort Trumbull, New London, Conn.; Fort Jay, Governor's Island, New York Harbor; works on Ellis and Bedloe's islands, New York Harbor; Fort Mifflin, Delaware River, below Philadelphia; Fort McHenry, Baltimore; Fort Severn, Annapolis; Forts Norfolk and Nelson, on Elizabeth River, below Norfolk, Va.; forts Pinckney, Moultrie, and Mechanic, for the protection of Charleston, S. C.; Fort Mackinaw, island of Mackinaw; Fort Dearborn, Chicago; Fort Wayne, at the forks of the Maumee, Ind.; Fort Detroit, Michigan; Fort Niagara, mouth of the Niagara River; Fort Ontario, Oswego; Fort Tompkins, Sackett's Harbor, N. Y. Some of these were unfinished.

While the army of General Hull was lying in camp below Sandwich, in Canada, he was absent at Detroit two or three days. There had been some skirmishing with detachments of his army, under Colonels Cass and McArthur, near the Tarontee; and the apparent supineness of the general made the younger officers and the men suspect him of incapacity, if not of treachery. While Hull was absent at Detroit the

command of the American troops in Canada devolved on Colonel McArthur, and he resolved to attack Fort Malden. He detached some rangers to seek a convenient passage of the Tarontee above the bridge, so as to avoid the guns of the British armed vessel *Queen Charlotte*, lying in the river. This was impracticable. A scouting party was sent under Major Denny to reconnoitre, who found an Indian ambuscade between Turkey Creek and the Tarontee, in the Petit Côte settlement. There Denny had a sharp skirmish with the Indians, when a part of his line gave way, and he was compelled to retreat in confusion, pursued nearly 3 miles by the victors. He tried to rally his men, but in vain. In the skirmish he lost six men killed and two wounded. This was the first blood shed in the War of 1812–15.

The defeat of Hull weakened the confidence of the government and the people in an easy conquest of Canada, and immediate steps were taken, when the armistice of Dearborn was ended, to place troops along the northern frontier sufficient to make successful invasion, or prevent one from the other side. Vermont and New York joined, in co-operation with the United States, in placing (September, 1812) 3,000 regulars and 2,000 militia on the borders of Lake Champlain, under Dearborn's immediate command. Another force of militia was stationed at different points along the south bank of the St. Lawrence, their left resting at Sackett's Harbor, at the eastern end of Lake Ontario. A third army was placed along the Niagara frontier, from Fort Niagara to Buffalo, then a small village. This latter force of about 6,000 men, half regulars and volunteers and half militia, were under the immediate command of Maj.-Gen. Stephen Van Rensselaer, a leading Federalist of New York.

The reverses that befell the American army during 1812 spread a gloom over the people, justified the warnings of the opposition who prophesied disaster, and increased the activity and machinations of the peace party. But before the close of the year the brilliant exploits of the little American navy dispelled the brooding gloom that hung over the people and filled them with joy and confidence. These justified the judgment of the Federalists, who always favored measures for increasing the navy, and the opposition of the Democrats to it ceased. These naval victories astounded the British public. The lion was bearded in his den. The claims of Great Britain to the mastery of the seas were vehemently and practically disputed. Nor were the naval triumphs of the Americans confined to the national vessels. Privateers swarmed on the oceans in the summer and autumn of 1812, and were making prizes in every direction. Accounts of their exploits filled the newspapers and helped to swell the tide of joy throughout the Union. It is estimated that during the last six months of 1812 more than fifty armed British vessels and 250 merchantmen, with an aggregate of over 3,000 prisoners and a vast amount of booty, were captured by the Americans. The British newspapers raved and uttered opprobrious epithets. A leading London journal petulantly and vulgarly gave vent to its sentiments by expressing an apprehension that England might be stripped of her maritime supremacy "by a piece of striped bunting flying at the mast-heads of a few fir-built frigates, manned by a handful of bastards and cowards." The position of the American army at the close of 1812 was as follows: The Army of the Northwest, first under Hull, and then under General Harrison, was occupying a defensive position among the snows of the wilderness on the banks of the Maumee River; the Army of the Centre, under General Smyth, was resting on the defensive on the Niagara frontier; and the Army of the North, under General Bloomfield, was also resting on the defensive at Plattsburg, on the western shore of Lake Champlain.

Admiral Cochrane, who succeeded Admiral Warren in command on the American Station, issued a proclamation, dated at Bermuda, the rendezvous of the more southern blockading fleet, April 2, 1813. It was addressed to slaves under the denomination of "persons desirous to emigrate from the United States." Owing to the inability of nearly all the slaves to read, the proclamation had very little effect. It is said that a project had been suggested by British officers for taking possession of the peninsula between the Delaware and Chesapeake bays, and there

training for British service an army of negro slaves. The project was rejected only because the British, being then slaveholders themselves, did not like to encourage insurrection elsewhere.

General Armstrong, Secretary of War, planned a second invasion of Canada in the autumn of 1813. There had been a change in the military command on the northern frontier. For some time the infirmities of General Dearborn, the commander-in-chief, had disqualified him for active service, and in June (1813) he was superseded by Gen. James Wilkinson, who, like Dearborn, had been an active young officer in the Revolution. Leaving Flournoy in command at New Orleans, Wilkinson hastened to Washington, D. C., when Armstrong assured him he would find 15,000 troops at his command on the borders of Lake Ontario. On reaching Sackett's Harbor (Aug. 20), he found one-third of the troops sick, no means for transportation, officers few in number, and both officers and men raw and undisciplined. After some movements on the lake, Wilkinson returned to Sackett's Harbor in October, sick with lake fever. Armstrong was there to take personal charge of preparations for an attack upon Kingston or Montreal. Knowing the personal enmity between Wilkinson and Wade Hampton, Armstrong, accompanied by the adjutant-general, had established the headquarters of the War Department at Sackett's Harbor to promote harmony between these two old officers, and to add efficiency to the projected movements. Wilkinson, not liking this interference of Armstrong, wished to resign; but the latter would not consent, for he had no other officer of experience to take his place. After much discussion, it was determined to pass Kingston and make a descent upon Montreal.

For weeks the bustle of preparation was great, and many armed boats and transports had been built at the Harbor. On Oct. 17 orders were given for the embarkation of the troops at Sackett's Harbor, and General Hampton, then halting on the banks of the Chateaugay River, was ordered to move to the St. Lawrence, at the mouth of that stream. The troops at the harbor were packed in scows, bateaux, Durham boats, and common lake sailboats, at the beginning of a dark night, with an impending storm hovering over the lake. Before morning there was a furious gale, with rain and sleet, and the boats were scattered in every direction. The shores of the little islands in that region were strewn with wrecks, and fifteen large boats were totally lost. On the 20th a large number of the troops and saved boats arrived at Grenadier Island, near the entrance to the St. Lawrence. There they were finally all gathered. The damage and loss of stores, etc., was immense. The troops remained encamped until Nov. 1. The snow had fallen to the depth of 10 inches. Delay would be dangerous, and on Nov. 9 General Brown and his division pushed forward, in the face of a tempest, to French Creek, at the present village of Clayton, on the St. Lawrence. Chauncey at the same time made an ineffectual attempt to blockade the British vessels in the harbor of Kingston. British marine scouts were out among the Thousand Islands. They discovered the Americans at French Creek, where, on the afternoon of Nov. 1, there was a sharp fight between the troops and British schooners and gunboats filled with infantry. The remainder of the troops, with Wilkinson, came down from Grenadier Island, and on the morning of the 5th the whole flotilla, comprising 300 bateaux, preceded by gunboats, filled with 7,000 troops, went down the St. Lawrence, pursued by British troops in a galley and gunboats, through the sinuous channels of the Thousand Islands. The same evening the belligerents had a fight by moonlight in Alexandria Bay, and land troops from Kingston reached Prescott, opposite Ogdensburg, at the same time.

Wilkinson disembarked his army just above Ogdensburg, and marched to some distance below to avoid the batteries at Prescott. Brown, meanwhile, successfully took the flotilla past Prescott on the night of the 6th, and the forces were reunited 4 miles below Ogdensburg. There Wilkinson was informed that the Canada shores of the St. Lawrence were lined with posts of musketry and artillery to dispute the passage of the flotilla. To meet this emergency, Col. Alexander McComb was detached with 1,200 of the best troops of the army, and on the 7th landed on the

Canada shore. He was followed by Lieutenant-Colonel Forsyth with his riflemen. On the 8th a council of war was held, and, after receiving a report from Col. J. G. Swift, the chief engineer, concerning the strength of the army, the question "Shall the army proceed with all possible rapidity to the attack of Montreal?" was considered, and was answered in the affirmative. General Brown at once crossed the river with his brigade. Meanwhile a large reinforcement had come down from Kingston to Prescott, and were marching rapidly forward to meet the American invaders. A severe engagement ensued at Chrysler's Field, a few miles below Williamsburg (Nov. 11, 1813). The flotilla was then at the head of the Long Rapids, 20 miles below Ogdensburg. The Americans were beaten in the fight and driven from the field (see CHRYSLER'S FIELD, BATTLE OF), and that night they withdrew to the boats. The following morning the flotilla passed the Long Rapids safely. General Wilkinson was ill, and word came from Hampton that he would not form a junction with Wilkinson's troops at St. Regis. The officers were unwilling to serve longer under the incompetent Wilkinson, and it was determined, at a council of war, to abandon the expedition against Montreal. The troops went into winter quarters at French Mills (afterwards Covington), on the Salmon River.

The news of Perry's victory on Lake Erie (see ERIE, LAKE, BATTLE ON) startled the British public, and strange confessions of weakness were made in the English and provincial newspapers. "We have been conquered on the lake," said a Halifax paper, "and so we shall be on every other lake, if we take as little care to protect them." Others urged the necessity of an alliance with the Indians to secure the possession of Canada. "We dare assert," said a writer in one of the leading British reviews, "and recent events have gone far in establishing the truth of the proposition, that the Canadas cannot be effectually and durably defended without the friendship of the Indians and command of the lakes and river St. Lawrence." He urged his countrymen to consider the interests of the Indians as their own; "for men," he said, "whose very name is so formidable to an American, and whose friendship has recently been shown to be of such great importance to *us*, we cannot do too much."

Towards the close of 1813, the whole of the New England States presented a united front in opposition to the national administration and the war. The peace faction was very active and industriously sowed discontent. The newspapers and orators of the ultra-Federal party denounced the administration as hostile to New England, which, it was asserted, was treated as a conquered province; her great interests — commerce and navigation — being sacrificed, and her sentiments of right and justice trampled upon. They declared that every New England man of promise in public affairs had been for twelve years proscribed by the national government, and that, reduced as New England was by follies and oppressions to the brink of ruin, it was her first duty to consult her own interest and safety. The idea was broached in a Boston newspaper (*Daily Advertiser*) that it would be desirable for New England to conclude a separate peace with Great Britain, or, at least, assume a position of neutrality, leaving it to the States that chose to fight it out to their hearts' content. No person appeared as the avowed champion of such a step. It was denounced as a treasonable suggestion, and produced considerable anxiety at Washington. These discontents finally led to the HARTFORD CONVENTION (*q. v.*).

For nearly two years the Americans waged offensive war against Great Britain (1812–14), when they were compelled to change to a war of defence. The entire sea-coast from the St. Croix to the St. Mary's, and of the Gulf of Mexico to New Orleans and beyond, was menaced by British squadrons and regiments. At Portland, Boston, Providence, New Haven, New York, Baltimore, Norfolk, Charleston, and Savannah, which were exposed to attack, the people were soon busy casting up fortifications for defence.

On Jan. 6, 1814, the United States government received from that of Great Britain an offer to treat for peace directly at London, that city being preferred because it would afford greater facilities for negotiation. It was proposed, in case there should be insuperable objections to

London, to hold the conference at Gottenburg, in Sweden. This offer, with the selection of Gottenburg, was accepted by President Madison, who, at the same time, complained of the rejection of Russia's mediation, which had been offered three separate times. He nominated as commissioners to negotiate for peace John Quincy Adams and James A. Bayard, to whom Henry Clay and Jonathan Russell were added as special representatives of the war party. At the same time, Russell was nominated and confirmed as minister to Sweden.

Early in 1814 the most serious business of Congress was to provide for recruiting the army. The enlistment of twelve-months' men, it was found, stood in the way of more permanent engagements, and the fourteen regiments of that character then existing were to be replaced by men to serve five years. Nor were any volunteers to be retained except for a like period. Three additional rifle regiments were to be raised; two regiments of light dragoons were consolidated, and three regiments of artillery were reorganized into twelve battalions. Could the ranks be filled under this organization, there would be an army of 60,000 regulars. To fill these ranks the money bounty was raised to $124—$50 when mustered in and the remainder when discharged, the latter sum, in case of death, to go to the soldier's representatives. To anybody who should bring in a recruit, $8 were allowed. In the debate on this subject Daniel Webster made his first speech in Congress, in which he declared that the difficulty of raising troops grew out of the unpopularity of the war, and not from political opposition to it. The enormous bounties offered proved that. And he advised giving over all ideas of invasion, and also all restrictive war waged against commerce by embargoes and non-importation acts. "If war must be continued, go to the ocean," he said, "and then, if the contention was seriously for maritime rights, the united wishes and exertions of the nation would go with the administration." Little was done towards increasing the force of the navy, excepting an appropriation of $500,000 for the construction of a steam-frigate or floating battery, for which Fulton offered a plan, and the authorizing the purchase, for $225,000, of the vessels captured on Lake Erie. At a cost of about $2,000,000 in bounties, 14,000 recruits were obtained, of whom the New England States furnished more than all the rest of the States put together.

At the beginning of August, 1814, Armstrong, the Secretary of War, ordered General Izard, in command of a large body of troops at Plattsburg, to march a larger portion of them to co-operate with the army on the Niagara frontier. This order produced amazement and indignation in the minds of Izard and his officers, for they knew the imminent peril of immediate invasion, from the region of the St. Lawrence, of a large body of Wellington's veterans, who had lately arrived in Canada. Both the army and people were expecting an occasion for a great battle near the foot of Lake Champlain very soon, and this order produced consternation among the inhabitants. Izard wrote to the War Department in a tone of remonstrance, Aug. 11: "I will make the movement you direct, if possible; but I shall do it with the apprehension of risking the force under my command, and with the certainty that everything in this vicinity but the lately erected works at Plattsburg and Cumberland Head will, in less than three days after my departure, be in the possession of the enemy." Nine days afterwards Izard wrote to the Secretary: "I must not be responsible for the consequences of abandoning my present strong position. I will obey orders, and execute them as well as I know how." The removal of this force invited the invasion of Prevost immediately afterwards, which was checked by the American army and navy at Plattsburg, where, with great diligence, General Macomb concentrated troops for defence immediately after Izard left.

From the beginning of the war the government had to depend upon loans for funds, and in this matter the peace faction found an excellent chance for embarrassing the administration. They took measures to injure the public credit, and so much did they do so that upon each loan after 1812 a ruinous bonus was paid. On a loan of $16,000,000, at the beginning of 1813, the lender received a bonus of about

$2,000,000. In March, 1814, the darkest period of the war, a loan of $25,000,000 was authorized, when the peace faction, at public meetings, through the newspapers, and even from the pulpit, cast every possible embarrassment in the way of the government. Their opposition assumed the character of virtual treason. They violently denounced the government and those who dared to lend it money; and by inflammatory publications and personal threats they intimidated many capitalists who were disposed to lend. The result was, not half the amount of the proposed loan was obtained, and that only by the payment of $2,852,000 on $11,400,000. Then this unpatriotic faction pointed to this event as evidence of the unwillingness of the people to continue the war. So disastrous were these attempts to borrow money that only one more of a like nature was made through the remainder of the war, the deficiency being made up by treasury notes. Foiled in their efforts to utterly prevent the government from making loans, the peace faction struck another blow at the public credit, and the complicity of Boston banks gave it intensity. The banks out of New England were the principal lenders to the government, and measures were taken to drain them of their specie, and so produce an utter inability on their part to pay their subscriptions. Boston banks demanded specie for the notes of New York banks and those farther south which they held, and at the same time drafts were drawn on the New York banks for the balances due the Boston corporations, to the total amount of about $8,000,000. A panic was created, and great commercial distress ensued, for the banks so drained were compelled to contract their discounts. This conspiracy against the public credit was potent and ruinous in its effects. To make the blow more intensely fatal, the conspirators made arrangements with agents of the government authorities of Lower Canada, whereby a very large amount of British government bills, drawn on Quebec, were transmitted to New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, and offered on such advantageous terms that capitalists were induced to purchase them. By this means an immense amount of gold was transmitted to Canada, and so placed beyond the reach of the government and put into the hands of the enemy.

In January, 1815, Alexander J. Dallas, Secretary of the Treasury, in a report to Congress, laid bare the poverty of the national treasury. The year had closed with $19,000,000 unpaid debts, to meet which there was a nominal balance in the treasury of less than $2,000,000 and about $4,500,000 of uncollected taxes. For the next year's services $50,000,000 would be required. The total revenue, including the produce of the new taxes, was estimated at about $11,000,000—$10,000,000 from taxes, and only $1,000,000 from duties on imports, to such a low ebb had the commerce of the United States been reduced. Various schemes for raising money were devised, but the prospect was particularly gloomy. The government was without money or credit; the regular military force was decreasing; the war party were at variance, Great Britain refusing to treat on admissible terms; a victorious British army threatening the Northern frontier; Cockburn in possession of Cumberland Island, off the coast of Georgia; the Southern States threatened with servile insurrection; a formidable British armament preparing to invade the Gulf region; and the peace faction doing all in their power to embarrass the government. It was at this juncture that the complaints of the HARTFORD CONVENTION (*q. v.*), and a commission from the legislature of Massachusetts appeared before the government. Fortunately, the news of the treaty of peace and the victory at New Orleans went over the country in February and saved the people from utter discouragement. The government took heart and authorized a loan of $18,400,000, the amount of treasury notes then outstanding; and as an immediate means to go on with, a new issue of treasury notes to the amount of $25,000,000 (part of them in sums under $100, payable to bearer, and without interest) was authorized. The small notes were intended for currency; those over $100 bore an interest of $5^2/_5$ per cent. All acts imposing discriminating duties on foreign vessels of reciprocity nations, and embargo, non-importation, and non-intercourse laws, were repealed; and so commerce was immediately revived and the revenue increased.

The whole number of captured British vessels during the war, on the lakes and on the ocean, including those taken by privateers (of which there remained forty or fifty at sea when peace was proclaimed), and omitting those recaptured, was reckoned at 1,750. There were captured or destroyed by British ships 42 American national vessels (including 22 gunboats), 133 privateers, and 511 merchant-vessels—in all 686, manned by 18,000 seamen.

Chronology. The following is a record of the chief battles and naval engagements between the United States forces and the combined British and Indian forces:

Action at Brownstown, Mich. Aug. 5, 1812

Action at Maguaga, 14 miles below Detroit.....Aug. 9, 1812

Surrender of Fort Dearborn and massacre (Chicago).....Aug. 15, 1812

Surrender of Detroit by Gen. William Hull (Michigan)).....Aug. 16, 1812

Frigate *Constitution* captures British frigate *Guerrière*.....Aug. 19, 1812

Defence of Fort Harrison, Indiana, Capt. Zachary Taylor commanding Sept. 4, 1812

Battle of Queenston.....Oct. 13, 1812

Sloop-of-war *Wasp* captures British sloop *Frolic*.....Oct. 18, 1812

Action at St. Regis, N. Y...Oct. 23, 1812

Frigate *United States* captures British frigate *Macedonian*.....Oct. 25, 1812

Affair at Black Rock, N. Y.; attempted invasion of Canada by the Americans under Gen. Alexander Smyth Nov. 28, 1812

Frigate *Constitution* captures British frigate *Java* off the coast of Brazil Dec. 29, 1812

Schooner *Patriot* sails from Charleston, S. C., for New York.....Dec. 30, 1812

[This vessel, having on board Theodosia, the wife of Governor Alston and only child of Aaron Burr, is never heard of afterwards.]

Action at Frenchtown, now Monroe, Mich.....Jan. 18, 1813

Defeat and capture of General Winchester at the river Raisin, Mich Jan. 22, 1813

British fleet, Vice-Admiral Cockburn, attempts to blockade the Atlantic coast January *et seq.* 1813

Sloop-of-war *Hornet* captures and sinks British sloop *Peacock* near the mouth of the Demerara River, South America Feb. 24, 1813

York (now Toronto), Upper Canada, captured.....April 27, 1813

Defence of Fort Meigs, O., by General Harrison.....April 28–May 9, 1813

Gen. Green Clay is checked in attempting to reinforce Fort Meigs...May 5, 1813

Fort George, on the west side of Niagara River, near its mouth, is captured by the American troops under General Dearborn.....May 27, 1813

Frigate *Chesapeake* surrenders to the British ship *Shannon*.....June 1, 1813

Action at Stony Creek, Upper Canada June 6, 1813

Affair at Beaver Dams, Upper Canada June 24, 1813

Maj. George Croghan's gallant defence of Fort Stephenson.....Aug. 2, 1813

British sloop-of-war *Pelican* captures the brig *Argus* in the British channel Aug. 14, 1813

Massacre at Fort Mimms, Ala., by the Creek Indians.....Aug. 30, 1813

Brig *Enterprise* captures British brig *Boxer* off the coast of Maine..Sept. 5, 1813

Perry's victory on Lake Erie Sept. 10, 1813

Detroit, Mich., reoccupied by the United States forces.....Sept. 28, 1813

Battle of the Thames, Upper Canada; Harrison defeats Proctor; death of Tecumseh.....Oct. 5, 1813

Action at Chrysler's Field, on the northern shore of the St. Lawrence, about 90 miles above Montreal.....Nov. 11, 1813

Jackson's campaign against the Creek Indians.....November, 1813

Gen. George McClure, commanding a Brigade on the Niagara frontier, burns the village of Newark, Canada, and evacuates Fort George, opposite Fort Niagara (he is severely censured).....Dec. 10, 1813

Fort Niagara captured by the British Dec. 19, 1813

Buffalo and Black Rock burned by the British and Indians.....Dec. 30, 1813

General Jackson defeats and crushes the Creek Indians at Great Horse Shoe Bend, on the Tallapoosa.....March 27, 1814

Frigate *Essex*, Capt. David Porter, surrenders to the British ships *Phœbe* and *Cherub* in the harbor of Valparaiso, Chile March 28, 1814

General Wilkinson, with about 2,000 troops, attacks a party of British, fortified in a stone mill, at La Colle, Lower Canada, near the north end of Lake Champlain, and is repulsed March 30, 1814

British blockade extended to the whole coast of the United States..April 23, 1814

Sloop-of-war *Peacock* captures the British brig *Épervier* off the coast of Florida with $118,000 in specie....April 29, 1814

British attack and destroy the fort at Oswego, N. Y.....May 6, 1814

Action at Big Sandy Creek, N. Y. May 29, 1814

Sloop-of-war *Wasp* captures the British sloop *Reindeer* in the British Channel June 28, 1814

Fort Erie, with about 170 British soldiers, surrenders to Gen. Winfield Scott and General Ripley.....July 3, 1814

Battle of Chippewa, Upper Canada July 5, 1814

Battle of Lundy's Lane, or Bridgewater, Upper Canada.....July 25, 1814

Congress appropriates $320,000 for one or more floating batteries, designed by Robert Fulton; one finished..July, 1814

[This was the first steam vessel of war built.]

Expedition from Detroit against Fort Mackinaw fails.....Aug. 4, 1814

British troops land at Pensacola, Fla. Aug. 4, 1814

British troops, 5,000 strong, under General Drummond, invest Fort Erie Aug. 4, 1814

Stonington, Conn., bombarded by the British fleet under Commodore Hardy Aug. 9–12, 1814

British fleet, with 6,000 veterans from Wellington's army under General Ross, appears in Chesapeake Bay..Aug. 14, 1814

Midnight assault by the British on Fort Erie repulsed.....Aug. 15, 1814

Battle of Bladensburg, the Capitol at Washington burned.....Aug. 24, 1814

Nantucket Island stipulates with the British fleet to remain neutral Aug. 31, 1814

Sloop-of-war *Wasp* sinks the British sloop *Avon*.....Sept. 1, 1814

British General Prevost crosses the Canadian frontier towards Plattsburg, N. Y., with 12,000 veteran troops Sept. 1, 1814

Fleet on Lake Champlain under Com. Thomas Macdonough defeats the British under Commodore Downie..Sept. 11, 1814

British approaching Baltimore, Md., under General Ross; he is killed at North Point.....Sept. 12, 1814

They find the city too well fortified, and retire.....Sept. 13, 1814

British fleet bombard Fort McHenry Sept. 13, 1814

[During this attack Francis Scott Key wrote *The Star-Spangled Banner*.]

British attack on Fort Bowyer, Mobile Bay, repulsed.....Sept. 15, 1814

Garrison at Fort Erie by a sortie break up the siege.....Sept. 17, 1814

General Drummond raises the siege of Fort Erie.....Sept. 21, 1814

Wasp captures the British brig *Atlanta* Sept. 21, 1814

Gallant fight of the privateer, the *General Armstrong*, with the British 74-gun ship-of-the-line, the *Plantagenet*, in the harbor of Fayal, one of the Azores..Sept. 26, 1814

Gen. George Izard, on the Niagara frontier, moves on Chippewa with a force of 6,000 men.....Oct. 13, 1814

General Izard, after a skirmish with the British near Chippewa, Oct. 19, retires to the Niagara River, opposite Black Rock.....Oct. 21, 1814

Fort Erie abandoned and blown up by the United States troops....Nov. 5, 1814

British approach New Orleans Dec. 22, 1814

General Jackson attacks the command of General Keane on Villeré's plantation, about 9 miles below the city, and checks its advance on the night of Dec. 23, 1814

He intrenches about 7 miles below the city.....Dec. 24, 1814

[His line, extending at right angles to the river, reached to a cypress swamp about 1½ miles distant, and was protected by rudely constructed breastworks of cotton bales and earth, with a shallow ditch in front. At the extreme left of this line was stationed the brigade of General Coffee, 800 strong; then came Carroll's brigade, about 1,400 men, while the right towards the river was held by 1,300 men under Colonel Ross, including all the regulars; General Adair was placed in the rear with about 500 men as a reserve. Along

the line were placed at intervals eighteen guns, carrying from six to twenty-three pound balls, and several guns across the river under Patterson. Anticipating an advance on the west bank of the river as well, Jackson had placed Gen. David B. Morgan with about 1,200 men and two or three guns a little in advance of his own position.]

British attack General Jackson with artillery, but are forced to retire
Dec. 28, 1814

Another attempt made.....Jan. 1, 1815

Final assault fails.....Jan. 8, 1815

[The British commander, Sir Edward Pakenham, in his final assault designing to attack on both sides of the river at once, ordered Col. (afterwards Sir) William Thornton to cross on the night of Jan. 7 with 1,200 men and attack General Morgan at early dawn. The main assault under Pakenham was made as early as 6 A.M., the 8th, in two columns, the right under Maj.-Gen. Sir Samuel Gibbs, the left under Maj.-Gen. John Keane, and the reserve under Maj.-Gen. John Lambert; total force probably numbered about 7,000 men. General Gibbs's column in close ranks, sixty men front, came under fire first, which was so severe and deadly that a few platoons only reached the edge of the ditch and broke. In this advance Gibbs was mortally wounded, and Pakenham, in his attempt to rally the men, was almost instantly killed. The left advance under Keane fared no better, Keane being severely wounded and carried off the field, and his column routed. By 8 A.M. the assault was at an end. Colonel Thornton's attack on the west side of the river was successful, for he routed General Morgan's militia, which were poorly armed, and drove them beyond Jackson's position towards the city, and compelled Patterson to spike his guns and retire, but owing to the failure of the main assault, together with the loss of the chief officers, General Lambert, now chief in command, recalled Thornton from his successes, and on Jan. 9 began preparations for retreating. Of 7,000 British troops engaged in the assault, 2,036 were killed and wounded, the killed being estimated at over 700; Americans lost eight killed and thirteen wounded in the main assault; with a total loss of seventy-one.]

Frigate *President*, forty-four guns, Commodore Decatur commanding, is captured by the British frigates *Endymion*, forty guns, the *Pomone*, *Tenedos*, and *Majestic*
Jan. 15, 1815

Frigate *Constitution* captures the *Cyane* and the *Levant*, British sloops-of-war
February, 1815

Fort Bowyer, invested by the British fleet, surrenders.....Feb. 12, 1815

Sloop-of-war *Hornet*, Capt. James Biddle, captures the British brig-of-war *Penguin* off the Cape of Good Hope
March 23, 1815

See also JACKSON, ANDREW; NEW ORLEANS; and readily suggestive names of persons and places that were conspicuous in the war.

War of 1812, SOCIETY OF. See SOCIETY OF THE WAR OF 1812.

War, Prisoners of, in general persons captured from the enemy during military or naval operations. In former times the entire people of a vanquished city, state, or nation became the absolute property of the victors; the men were either put to death or with the women and children became slaves. By later usage the combatants or fighting force are the ones commonly considered and treated as prisoners of war. A French decree of 1811 says: "Any prisoner of war, having the rank of an officer, and any hostage, who, after having given his parole, violates it, shall, if recaptured, be regarded and treated like a soldier, as to pay and rations, and confined in a citadel, fort, or castle." The theory of modern usage is stated by Montesquieu—*viz.*, "To slay an enemy after the battle, or to reduce him to slavery is no longer permitted by international law; to make him lay down his arms, and to hold him as prisoner of war till the re-establishment of peace (unless a free retreat be granted him), are what the laws of modern warfare prescribe."

It is often the best immediate policy for a nation to speedily relieve itself of its prisoners of war by exchange or by freeing them on parole. This was done by the United States immediately after the war with Spain, when the Spanish army surrendered in Cuba was sent back to Spain at the expense of the American government.

Early in 1864 the Secretary of War reported the number of captures during the war as follows: 1 lieutenant-general, 5 major-generals, 25 brigadier-generals, 186 colonels, 146 lieutenant-colonels, 244 majors, 2,497 captains, 5,811 lieutenants, 16,563 non-commissioned officers, 121,156 privates, and 5,800 citizens, a total of 152,434. There had been exchanged up to that time 121,937 Confederates, against 110,866 Union soldiers returned. On June 14, 1862, a conference was held on the banks of the Chickahominy, between Col. Thomas M. Key and Gen. Howell Cobb, regarding the exchange of prisoners of war. A cartel was signed by Maj.-Gen. John A. Dix, U. S. A., and Maj.-Gen. D. H. Hill, C. S. A., at Haxall's Landing, on the James River, Va., July 22, and announced in public order Sept. 25. The value of prisoners was to be rank for rank, or 60 privates for a commanding general-in-chief, 40 for a major-general, 20 for a brigadier-general, 15 for a colonel, 10 for a lieutenant-colonel, etc. An act of the Confederate Congress, May 1, 1863, to punish, by death or otherwise, commanders of negro troops captured in battle, stopped exchanges except by agreement between generals in the field. The matter was placed in charge of Lieut.-Gen. Grant, Oct. 15, 1864, and negotiations renewed for exchange of all prisoners. Between Jan. 1 and Oct. 20, 1865, there were in the custody of the United States, 98,802 prisoners of war; of these 1,955 enlisted in the service of the United States, 63,442 were released after cessation of hostilities, and 33,127 were exchanged; besides these, 174,223 prisoners surrendered in the Confederate armies, and were released on parole.

War, Prize of, property captured from an enemy, or an enemy's property captured from a neutral in time of war. If the property is captured in naval operations it is known as prize; if in military operations, it is booty. The entire subject of prize and prize money as considered by the United States government is defined in the statute of 1864. The statute providing for their disposal is in brief as follows: It is the first duty of the commanding officer of a vessel which had made a capture to send the prize, in charge of a prize master and prize crew, into the nearest convenient port for adjudication. The prize master takes with him all documents found on the vessel. On reaching port the prize master reports to the district-attorney of the district in which the port is located, and the attorney files in the United States District Court of the district a libel against the prize property, and a marshal is placed in charge of it. The court appoints a prize commission of three members, who treat the property as an individual under charges and proceed to try it, examining all papers and taking the depositions of the prize master, crew, owners, or representatives of the property, and other witnesses. The report or findings of the commission is submitted to the court, which condemns or releases the property according to the testimony. If the property is condemned, the court orders its sale at public auction and decides how the proceeds shall be distributed. In case the captured vessel is not in a condition to be sent to a port for adjudication, an appraisement is made, the property is sold, and the proceeds are deposited with the nearest assistant treasurer of the United States pending disposal according to law. See ARBITRATION, GENERAL TREATY OF.

War, Rules of, a code of instructions for the government of armies during hostilities. The instructions for the armies of the United States are contained in *General Orders No. 100*, issued April 24, 1863, and reissued in May, 1898. These instructions, originally prepared for the United States armies alone and in the midst of the Civil War, were found to be so comprehensive that they were adopted by both France and Prussia in the war between them, and were the bases on which a general European conference afterward acted in drawing up an agreement on this subject. They cover almost every conceivable feature of military conduct and usage in time of war, and define many technical terms.

The following is a summary of the most important instructions: Military necessity admits of all direct destruction of life or limb of "armed" enemies and of other persons whose destruction is incidentally "unavoidable" in the armed contests of the war. Military necessity

does not admit of the infliction of suffering for the sake of suffering or for revenge, or of maiming or wounding, except in fight, or of torture to extort confessions. It admits of deception, but disclaims acts of perfidy. It is lawful to starve the hostile belligerents, armed or unarmed, so that it leads to the speedier subjection of the enemy. Commanders, whenever admissible, inform the enemy of their intention to bombard a place, but it is no infraction of the common law of war to omit thus to inform them. Surprise may be a necessity. A victorious army appropriates all public money, seizes all public movable property till further directed by its government, and sequesters for its own benefit or that of its government all the revenues of real property belonging to the hostile government or nation. The title to such real property remains in abeyance during military occupation and till the conquest is made complete. The United States acknowledges and protects, in hostile countries occupied by them, religion and morality, strictly private property, the persons of the inhabitants, especially those of women, and the sacredness of domestic relations. Deserters from the American army, having entered the service of the enemy, suffer death if they fall into the hands of the United States. It is against the usage of modern war to resolve in hatred and revenge to give no quarter. Outposts, sentinels, or pickets are not to be fired on except to drive them in, or when a positive order, special or general, has been issued to that effect. Whoever intentionally inflicts additional wounds on an enemy already wholly disabled, or kills him, or orders that this shall be done, shall suffer death if convicted.

Much has been done in recent years by The Hague Peace Conferences to lessen the horrors of war.

Warburton, GEORGE, author; born near Tullamore, Ireland, presumably about 1812; joined the British army, and reached the rank of major. He spent some time in Canada; then returned to England, and represented Harwich in Parliament. His publications include *Hochelaga, or England in the New World; The Conquest of Canada,* etc. He died in 1857.

Ward, ANDREW HENSHAW, historian; born in Shrewsbury, Mass., May 26, 1784; graduated at Harvard College in 1808; admitted to the bar in 1811 and practised in Shrewsbury; was engaged in the custom-house in Boston in 1829–53, with the exception of two years; and was a justice of peace for over fifty years. His publications include *History of the Town of Shrewsbury; Ward Family: Descendants of William Ward;* and *Genealogical History of the Rice Family.* He died in Newtonville, Mass., Feb. 18, 1864.

Ward, ARTEMAS, military officer; born in Shrewsbury, Mass., Nov. 27, 1727; graduated at Harvard College in 1748, served as major in the Northern army

Artemas Ward

from 1755 to 1758, and became lieutenant-colonel. He was deprived of his commission because he persistently gave political as well as military instruction to his troops. Taking an active part against the ministerial measures, he was appointed a general officer by the Massachusetts Provincial Congress, Oct. 27, 1774; also a delegate to the Provincial Congress of Massachusetts, and in May, 1775, became commander-in-chief of the forces gathered at Cambridge, in which post he acted until the arrival of Washington at the beginning of July, 1775. He was in nominal command at the battle of Bunker Hill, although he had no share in the events of that day, as he remained at his headquarters at Cambridge. Ward was made

the first major-general under Washington; resigned in the spring of 1776 on account of ill-health. He was president of the council in 1777, and in 1779 was chosen a delegate to Congress, but ill-health prevented his taking a seat in that body. For sixteen years he was in the Massachusetts legislature, and was speaker of the Assembly in 1785. From 1791 to 1795 he was in Congress. He died in Shrewsbury, Mass., Oct. 28, 1800.

Ward, ARTEMUS. See BROWNE, CHARLES FARRAR.

Ward, DURBIN, lawyer; born in Augusta, Ky., Feb. 11, 1819; settled in Fayette county, Ind.; admitted to the bar in 1842; prosecuting attorney of Warren county, O., in 1845–51; served throughout the Civil War; won distinction at the battle of Chickamauga, where he was severely wounded; promoted lieutenant-colonel, Dec. 31, 1862, and brevetted brigadier-general in October, 1865; was United States attorney for the southern district of Ohio in 1866–68; elected to the State Senate in 1870; and drew up the plan of the present circuit court system of Ohio. He died in Lebanon, O., May 22, 1886.

Ward, FREDERICK TOWNSEND, military officer; born in Salem, Mass., Nov. 29, 1831; became a sailor; went to Shanghai, China, in 1860, when the Taeping rebels were being victorious everywhere. He recruited a band of men from various countries and their services were accepted by the government. He first captured the walled town of Sungkiang, in which there were 10,000 rebels, in recognition of which he was created a mandarin of the fourth degree. He next dispersed the rebels around Shanghai and later prevented them from taking that city. Afterwards he was made admiral-general and created a mandarin of the highest grade, married the daughter of a powerful native, and was named Hwa. When Captain Wilkes removed the Confederate commissioners from the *Trent* and war seemed probable between the United States and England, he planned the seizure of the British warships and merchant vessels in Chinese waters. At the outbreak of the Civil War he tried to close up his affairs in China in order to enlist in the National army, and made an offer of $10,000 to the United States government, but before he received an answer was mortally wounded in an action at Tsekie, and died in Ningpo, Sept. 21, 1862.

Ward, HENRY AUGUSTUS, naturalist; born in Rochester, N. Y., March 9, 1834; educated at Williams College and at the Harvard Scientific School, where he became assistant to Professor Agassiz in 1854; was Professor of Natural Sciences at Rochester University in 1860–65; manager of gold-mines in Montana in 1866–69; travelled extensively in various parts of the world, making large and valuable cabinets of mineralogy and geology, which have been distributed among universities, colleges, and schools throughout the United States. He was naturalist to the United States expedition to Santo Domingo in 1871. He died in Buffalo, N. Y., July 4, 1906.

Ward, JAMES HARMAN, naval officer; born in Hartford, Conn., in 1806; was educated at Norwich Military Academy and Trinity College; entered the navy in 1823, and rose to commander in 1858. He lectured on gunnery, and urged the establishment of a naval school. In May, 1861, he was placed in command of the Potomac flotilla; silenced the batteries at Aquia Creek, and in an attack upon a battery upon Mathias Point was mortally wounded by a Minié ball, June 27, 1861. See MATTHIAS POINT.

Ward, JOHN HENRY HOBART, military officer; born in New York City, June 17, 1823; was educated at Trinity School; served in the Mexican War as sergeant-major; was assistant commissary-general of the State of New York in 1851–55; and commissary-general in 1855–59; went into the Civil War as colonel of the 38th New York Volunteers, and led his regiment at both battles of Bull Run, in all the battles of the Peninsular campaign, and at Chantilly; promoted brigadier-general of volunteers, and commanded a brigade in the 3d Corps, at Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, Gettysburg, the Wilderness. Spottsylvania, Kelly's Ford, and Wapping Heights. He died in Monroe, N. Y., July 24, 1903.

Ward, JOHN QUINCY ADAMS, sculptor; born in Urbana, O., June 29, 1830; studied under and assisted Henry K. Browne, in 1850–57; resided in Washington, D. C., in 1850–61, where he made portrait busts

of many of the public men, and in New York City after 1861. Among his statues are *7th Regiment Citizen Soldiers;* and *The Pilgrims; The Freedman; Henry Ward Beecher; Commodore Perry; Israel Putnam; George Washington; Gen. George H. Thomas;* equestrian statues of *Generals Sheridan and Hancock; The Indian Hunter,* etc. He died in New York City, May 1, 1910.

Ward, MARCUS LAURENCE, born in Newark, N. J., Nov. 9, 1812; was a delegate to the National Republican conventions in Chicago in 1860 and in Baltimore in 1864; governor of New Jersey in 1865–68; chairman of the national Republican committee in 1866; member of Congress in 1873–75. He was a member of the New Jersey Historical Society, improved the condition of the State-prison, and was an active philanthropist. He died in Newark, N. J., April 25, 1884.

Ward, NANCY, Cherokee Indian prophetess; born presumably about 1740; daughter of an officer in the British army named Ward and an Indian squaw, sister of Attaculla-culla, the vice-king. She was regarded as the inspired messenger of the Great Spirit, and is reported to have been a woman of singular beauty, with a tall, straight form, raven silk hair, flashing black eyes, and a strong personality; and had a powerful influence over the Cherokees, whom she many times restrained from atrocious acts against the white settlers. Her first recorded exploit was the rescue of Jeremiah Jack and William Rankin, two pioneers who had been captured by a hostile band. She next rescued from the stake the wife of William Bean, who was the first settler beyond the Alleghany Mountains. Mrs. Bean was taken prisoner near the fort at Watauga. After securing her liberty Nancy sent her back to her husband with a strong escort. Her greatest service, however, to the whites was the constant warning of outbreaks against them, which she conveyed through the Indian trader, John M. Lea. Owing to this information the whites were always prepared for the assaults of the Indians. It is said she once declared: "The white men are our brothers; the same house holds us, the same sky covers all." Had it not been for her friendship the settlers would doubtless have been annihilated. The date of her death is unknown.

Ward, NATHANIEL, author; born in Haverhill, Suffolk, England, about 1578; graduated at Emmanuel College, Cambridge, in 1603; practised law and preached; became a member of the Massachusetts Company in 1630, and emigrated to the colony in 1634, where he was pastor at Agawam till 1637; took part in the settlement of Haverhill in 1640; returned to England in 1646, and was author of *Body of Liberties; The Simple Cobbler of Agawam,* etc. He died in Shenfield, Essex, England, in October, 1652.

Ward, RICHARD, colonial governor; born in Newport, R. I., April 15, 1689; was attorney-general of Rhode Island in 1712–13; deputy and clerk of the Assembly in 1714; recorder in 1714–30; deputy-governor in 1740 and governor in 1740–43. He died in Newport, R. I., Aug. 21, 1763.

Ward, SAMUEL, patriot; born in Newport, R. I., May 27, 1725; was already a man of note when the Revolution occurred. He had acquired a competence in business, and had served in the Assembly of Rhode Island. In 1761 he was made chief-justice, and was twice governor (in 1762 and from 1765 to 1767). He was one of the founders of the Rhode Island College (now Brown University). A firm and persistent patriot, he was regarded as a safe leader and had great influence, and, with Stephen Hopkins, was sent a delegate from Rhode Island to the first Continental Congress in 1774. He was also a member of the second Congress in 1775, in which he usually presided when in committee of the whole. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., March 26, 1776.

Ward, WILLIAM THOMAS, military officer; born in Amelia county, Va., Aug. 9, 1808; educated in St. Mary's College, near Lebanon, Ky.; studied law and practised in Greensburg; served in the Mexican War as major of a regiment of Kentucky volunteers; was a member of the State legislature; Representative in Congress in 1851–53; served through the Civil War as brigadier-general of Kentucky volunteers, and commanded all troops south of Louisville. He was in General Sherman's campaigns, and took part in the battles preceding the fall of Atlanta and in the

march to the sea. He was brevetted major-general in 1865; mustered out of the service on Aug. 24, 1865; and resumed law practice. He died in Louisville, Ky., Oct. 12, 1878.

Warden, DAVID BAILIE, author; born in Ireland in 1778; graduated at the New York Medical College; was United States consul at Paris in 1805–45. His publications include *Inquiry Concerning the Intellectual and Moral Faculties and Literature of the Negroes; Origin and Nature of Consular Establishments; Description of the District of Columbia; Statistical, Political, and Historical Account of the United States of North America* (3 volumes); *Inquiry Into the Antiquities of North America*, etc. He died in Paris, France, Oct. 9, 1845.

Warden, ROBERT BRUCE, author; born in Bardstown, Ky., Jan. 18, 1824; was admitted to the bar in 1845; became president-judge of the Court of Common Pleas of Cincinnati; reporter of the Supreme Court of Ohio; and an associate judge of that court. He wrote *A Voter's Version of the Life and Character of Stephen Arnold Douglas; An Account of the Private Life and Public Services of Salmon Portland Chase*, etc.

Ware, EUGENE F. (literary pen-name, IRONQUILL), lawyer and author; born in Hartford, Conn., May 29, 1841; served through the Civil War in the Union army; admitted to the bar and settled in Kansas to practise, 1871; member of Kansas senate, 1879–84; United States Commissioner of Pensions, 1902–05; became widely known as a poet and humorist. His writings include *The Rise and Fall of the Saloon; The Lyon Campaign and History of First Iowa Infantry; The Indian Campaign of 1864; Rhymes of Ironquill* (including *The Washerwoman's Song*); and a translation from the French of Castaneda's account of *Coronado's March*. He died in Cascade, Col., July 1, 1911.

Ware, NATHANIEL A., author; born near Abbeville, S. C., Aug. 16, 1780; taught school; studied law and practised; removed to Natchez, Miss., where he became major of militia and secretary of the Territorial government. He removed to Philadelphia, and later to Cincinnati; travelled extensively, making a study of botany, geography, and natural science; and wrote *Views of the Federal Constitution; Notes on Political Economy, as Applicable to the United States*, etc. He died in Galveston, Tex., in 1854.

Ware, WILLIAM, author; born in Hingham, Mass., Aug. 3, 1797; graduated at Harvard College in 1816 and at Harvard Divinity School in 1819; ordained in the Congregational Church and held pastorates in Massachusetts and New York. He was editor and proprietor of the *Christian Examiner* in 1839–44. He wrote *Lectures on the Works and Genius of Washington Allston; a Memoir of Nathaniel Bacon*, etc. He died in Cambridge, Mass., Feb. 19, 1852.

Warfield, ETHELBERT DUDLEY, educator; born in Lexington, Ky., March 16, 1861; graduated at Princeton College in 1882 and at Columbia Law School in 1885; president and professor of history at Miami University in 1888–91; became president and professor of history at Lafayette College in the latter year; was chaplain-general of the Sons of the American Revolution in 1900–02. His publications include *The Kentucky Revolutions of 1798, an Historical Study; Memoir of Joseph Cabell Breckinridge, U. S. N.*, etc.

War Indemnity, the sum of money paid by the defeated country in an international war to the victorious government. The largest amount ever demanded in this way was $1,000,000,000, which France was compelled to pay to Germany after the war of 1870–1871. The settlement of war claims between the United States and Spain at the end of the war of 1898 was unique. By the terms of the treaty of peace the United States relinquished all claims for indemnity of any kind, and agreed to send back to Spain, at its own cost, all Spanish soldiers taken prisoners, with their arms. All the stands of colors, uncaptured ships, small-arms and guns of every kind, with their accessories, together with materials and supplies of all kinds belonging to the land and naval forces of Spain in the islands of the Philippines and Guam were to remain the property of Spain. The pieces of heavy ordnance, exclusive of field artillery, in the fortifications and coast defences were to remain in their places for six months, the United States being permitted to purchase them from Spain dur-

ing that time if satisfactory terms could be agreed on. The United States further agreed to pay to Spain the sum of $20,000,000. See SPAIN, TREATY WITH.

Waring, GEORGE EDWIN, sanitary engineer; born in Poundridge, N. Y., July 4, 1833; educated in public and private schools and took a course in agriculture and agricultural chemistry under Professor Mapes in 1853. He was agricultural engineer of Central Park, New York City, in 1857; planned the present system of drainage there, and was drainage engineer of the park till the Civil War broke

GEORGE EDWIN WARING.

out, when he entered the Union army as major of the 39th New York Volunteers, and later served as colonel of the 4th Missouri Cavalry, till its close. After the epidemic of yellow fever in Memphis in 1878, he changed the sewerage system of the city on an original plan, which was adopted in many cities of the United States. He was a member of the national board of health for many years; was appointed assistant engineer of New Orleans in 1894; and was commissioner of street cleaning in New York City in 1895–98. In 1898 he was sent to Cuba by the government at the head of a commission for the purpose of selecting camp sites on the island and making provision for sanitary improvements in Havana and other large cities. He spent several weeks on the island, and made a special study of conditions in Havana. On his return to New York City he was prostrated with yellow fever, and died Oct. 29, 1898. He published many works on drainage and sanitary science.

Warmoth, HENRY CLAY, lawyer; born in McLeansboro, Ill., May 9, 1842; was admitted to the bar in Lebanon, Mo., in 1861; entered the National army as lieutenant-colonel of the 32d Missouri Infantry in 1862; served later on the staffs of Gen. John A. McClernand and Gen. E. O. C. Ord; participated in the battles of Chickasaw Bayou, Arkansas Post, Missionary Ridge, Lookout Mountain, etc.; was appointed military judge in the Department of the Gulf, where he served till the close of hostilities, having jurisdiction over civil, criminal, and military cases; was with President Johnson during his "swing around the circle" through the Northern and Eastern States; governor of Louisiana in 1868–73; and collector of customs in New Orleans in 1889–93. In 1890 he built the New Orleans, Fort Jackson, and Grand Isle Railroad, of which he became president.

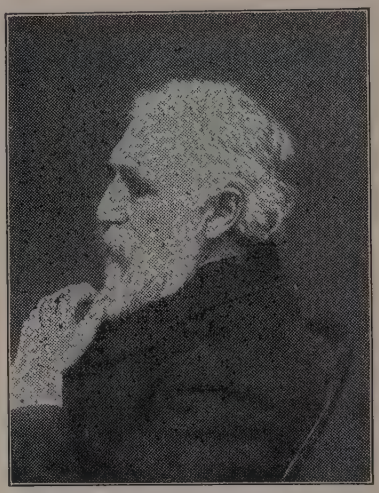
Warmoth became involved during his term in a violent faction fight with adversaries in his own party headed by Packard, the United States marshal. In the election of 1872 Warmoth became a Liberal and supported the conservative State ticket against the radicals, who had the favor of President Grant. The result of the election depended chiefly on the returning board, and the legal composition of this body was in dispute. Warmoth, in an exceedingly bitter conflict in the State courts, clearly outpointed his adversaries and secured a canvass of the returns by his own board, giving the Presidential electors, the governorship, and the legislature to the conservatives. But Packard appealed to the United States district judge, Durell, who, in a grossly irregular way, prohibited the conservative legislature to meet, ordered federal troops to occupy their hall and prevent their meeting, and directed a canvass of the returns of the election by a board which

he said was the legal one. Warmoth took care that this board should not get possession of the actual returns, but a canvass was nevertheless made of affidavits, census reports, and politicians' guesses, and the radical electors, governor, and legislature were declared elected.

Thus double electoral returns were sent to Washington, and two governments were organized in New Orleans. The radical legislature went through the form of impeaching and deposing Warmoth, recognized the mulatto Pinchback as his temporary successor, and finally installed Kellogg, another carpet-bagger, as the duly elected governor. The conservative legislature recognized Warmoth till the end of his term, in January, 1873, and then installed McEnery, their candidate, as governor. The President recognized Pinchback and Kellogg, and directed the troops to protect them. Later he referred the matter to Congress, where it became a subject of hot factional conflict within the Republican majority. In counting the electoral votes in February, 1873, the two houses refused to accept either return from Louisiana. The Senate committee on elections, after making a careful investigation, advised that another election be held.

Warner, ADONIRAM JUDSON, military officer; born in Wales, N. Y., Jan. 13, 1834; was engaged in teaching for several years prior to the Civil War; entered the Union army, 1861; served through the Peninsular Campaign, 1862; took part in battles of South Mountain and Antietam, and was severely wounded in the latter; also went through the battles of Gettysburg, though still suffering from his wound; brevetted brigadier-general and resigned, 1865; member of Congress, 1879–81 and 1883–87; long president Bimetallic Union; author of *Appreciation of Money; Source of Value in Money*, etc.

Warner, CHARLES DUDLEY, author; born in Plainfield, Mass., Sept. 12, 1829; graduated at Hamilton, College in 1851; admitted to the bar in 1856; practised in Chicago in 1856–60; engaged in journalism in Hartford in 1860; became co-editor of *Harper's Magazine* in 1884. He was the author of *A Book of Eloquence; The American Newspaper; In the Wilderness; Life of Washington Irving; Our Italy, Southern California*, etc., and the editor of *American Men of Letters; Captain John Smith, Sometime Governor of Virginia and Admiral of New England: A Study*



CHARLES DUDLEY WARNER.

of His Life and Writings; A Library of the World's Best Literature, etc. He died in Hartford, Conn., Oct. 20, 1900.

Warner, HIRAM, jurist; born in Hampshire county, Mass., Oct. 29, 1802; received an academic education; removed to Georgia in 1819, and taught school there for three years; admitted to the bar and began practice in Knoxville, Ga., in 1825; member of the State house of representatives in 1828–31; judge of the Superior Court of the State in 1833 and in 1836–40; judge of the Supreme Court of the State in 1845–53; and was elected to Congress in 1855. He was again appointed a judge of the Supreme Court, on the reorganization of the judiciary of the State, and became its chief-justice in 1872. He died in Atlanta, Ga., in 1881.

Warner, SETH, military officer; born in Roxbury, Conn., May 17, 1743; was a man of noble bearing, sound judgment, energy, and pure patriotism. With his father, Dr. Benjamin Warner, he went to Bennington in 1765, and became, with Ethan Allen, a principal leader in the disputes between New York and the New Hampshire Grants. He and Allen were

outlawed by the State of New York, and a reward was offered for their arrest. He captured Ticonderoga, May 12, 1775, and on July 27 was appointed colonel of Vermont militia. He joined the Northern army and was at the siege of St. John. He defeated an attempt of General Carleton to relieve the garrison. The next year he performed signal service during the retreat of the Americans from Canada. On the retreat of the Americans from Ticonderoga (July 4) in 1777 he again performed good service. In the command of the rear-guard he fought a severe battle at Hubbardton, and was compelled to retreat. At the battle near Bennington he and his command were essential aids in obtaining a victory over the invaders, and shared in the glory of the exploit. Warner remained in the service until 1782, when his constitution gave way under the strain of fatigue and hardship, and he returned home. He died in Roxbury, Conn., Dec. 26, 1784.

Warner, WILLARD, military officer; born in Granville, O., Sept. 4, 1826; graduated at Marietta College in 1845; removed to California in 1849; and engaged in mercantile business in Cincinnati, O., in 1852. He was a delegate to the Republican National Convention in 1860. He served through the Civil War; was engaged at Fort Donelson, in the siege of Corinth, the Vicksburg campaign, the march from Vicksburg to Chattanooga, and in the battles of Lookout Mountain, Missionary Ridge, and Ringgold. He was brevetted brigadier-general of volunteers in March, 1865, for gallantry. Removed to Alabama in 1867. He was a member of the State legislature in 1868; United States Senator in 1868–71; collector of customs at Mobile, Ala., in 1871–72; and member of the Republican National Conventions of 1868 and 1876. He died in Chattanooga, Tenn., Nov. 23, 1906.

Warner, WILLIAM, lawyer; born in Lafayette county, Wis., June 11, 1840; educated at Lawrence University, Wis., and at the University of Michigan; admitted to the bar; served through the Civil War in the 33d and 44th Wisconsin regiments; and at its close engaged in law practice in Kansas City, Mo. He became city attorney in 1867; circuit attorney in 1869; and mayor in 1871; was United States district attorney for western Missouri in 1882–84; member of Congress in 1885–89; the first department commander of the Grand Army of the Republic of Missouri, and commander-in-chief of the national encampment in 1888; and United States Senator from Missouri in 1905–11.

Warren, GOUVERNEUR KEMBLE, military officer; born in Cold Spring, N. Y., Jan. 8, 1830; graduated at West Point in 1850, entering the topographical engineers, and was assistant professor of mathematics

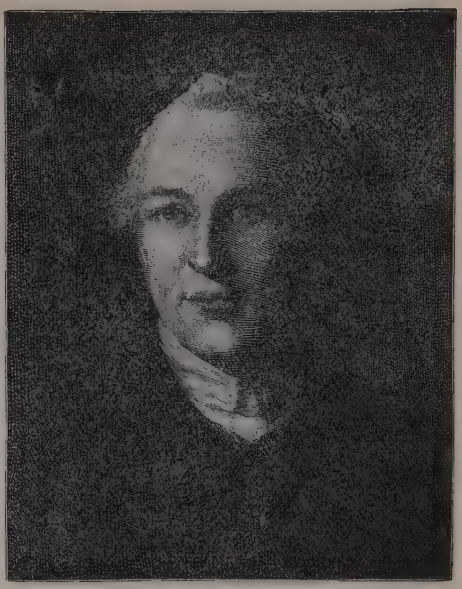
GOUVERNEUR KEMBLE WARREN.

at the Military Academy from 1859 to 1861. He was made colonel of the 5th New York Volunteers, August, 1861, and commanded a brigade in the campaign of 1862. In September he was promoted brigadier-general. He engaged in the battles of Manassas (or second Bull Run), Antietam, and Fredericksburg. After Feb. 4, 1863, he was chief of topographical engineers of the Army of the Potomac. He was engaged in the battles of Chancellorsville and Gettysburg (where he was wounded), and in the combats at Auburn and Bristow's Station. In March, 1864, he was placed in command of the 5th Army Corps, which post he held until April, 1865, in the campaign against Richmond, having been made major-general of volun-

teers in May, 1863. In that campaign he was exceedingly active and efficient, from the battle of the Wilderness to the battle of Five Forks. In March, 1865, he was brevetted major-general, United States army. He was the author of *Explorations in the Dakota Country; Preliminary Report of Explorations in Nebraska and Dakota in the Years 1855–57;* and *An Account of the 5th Army Corps at the Battle of Five Forks.* He died in Newport, R. I., Aug. 8, 1882. A memorial statue of him was erected on Little Round Top, Gettysburg, in 1888.

Warren, JOHN COLLINS, surgeon; born in Boston, Mass., Aug. 1, 1778; graduated at Harvard College in 1797; began practice of medicine in Boston, in 1802; was assistant Professor of Anatomy and Surgery in the Harvard Medical School in 1806–15, professor in 1815–47; and emeritus professor in 1847–56. He was one of the founders of the Massachusetts General Hospital and the McLean Asylum for the Insane; president of the Massachusetts Medical Society, of the Massachusetts Temperance Society, and of the Boston Society of Natural History; and founder and editor of the Boston *Medical and Surgical Journal.* He successfully applied ether in a surgical operation in the Massachusetts General Hospital in 1846. He was one of the editors of the *Monthly Anthology and Boston Review.* He died in Boston, Mass., May 4, 1856.

Warren, JOSEPH, physician; born in Roxbury, Mass., June 11, 1741; killed in battle, June 17, 1775; graduated at Harvard College in 1759; studied medicine; began practice in 1764 in Boston, and by his successful treatment of small-pox patients acquired a high reputation among the faculty. In politics he was in advance of public opinion in general, holding the doctrine that the British Parliament had no right to levy a tax of any kind upon the colonies. When, in 1772, Samuel Adams declined to deliver the annual oration on the anniversary of the Boston massacre, Dr. Warren took his place, and exhibited great ability. He again delivered the anniversary oration in 1775 in the midst of the danger caused by the presence of British troops and the exasperation of the citizens. He had been made a member of the Boston committee



JOSEPH WARREN.

of correspondence in 1772, and worked incessantly and effectively for the cause of the colonists. He was a delegate to the Suffolk county convention, and was chairman of the committee appointed to address Governor Gage on the subject of the fortifications on Boston Neck and other grievances. He sent him two papers, written by himself, which were communicated to the Continental Congress. As delegate in the Massachusetts Provincial Congress in 1774 he was made its president; also the chairman of the committee of safety.

The successful result to the patriots of the affair at Lexington and Concord was mainly due to the energy and vigilance of Dr. Warren. He was commissioned major-general by the Massachusetts Congress, June 14, 1775. Warren opposed the project of fortifying Charlestown Heights—Bunker (Breed's) Hill—because of the scarcity of powder, and to this cause the defeat of the provincials is chiefly chargeable. When a majority of a council of war and the committee of safety decided to fortify Bunker Hill, he resolved to take part in the enterprise. "I beg you not to expose your person, Dr. Warren," said Elbridge Gerry, "for your life is too valuable to us." "I know that I may fall,"

replied Warren, "but where's the man who does not think it glorious and delightful to die for his country?" Just before the battle began he went to the redoubt on Breed's Hill with a musket in his hand, and was offered the command by Colonel Prescott and General Putnam, but declined, and fought as a volunteer in the ranks. He was one of the last to leave the redoubt. As he moved away towards Bunker Hill an officer of the British army who knew him called out to him by name to surrender, at the same time commanding his men to cease firing. As Warren turned, attracted by the voice, a bullet penetrated his brain and he fell dead. The Continental Congress voted him a monument, and resolved to educate his infant son at the public expense. The monument was never erected by the government, but the Bunker Hill monument was unveiled on the famous hill, June 17, 1857. A masonic lodge in Charlestown erected a monument in 1794 on the spot where he fell. It was composed of a brick pedestal 8 feet square, rising 10 feet from the ground, and supporting a Tuscan column of wood 18 feet in height. This was surmounted by a gilt cross, bearing the inscription "J. W., aged 35," entwined with masonic emblems. Upon the pedestal was an appropriate inscription. The monument stood thus forty years, when it gave way to the Bunker Hill monument. A beautiful model of Warren's monument stands within the base of the huge granite obelisk.

WARREN'S MONUMENT.

Warren, JOSIAH, reformer; born in 1799; became known through his connection with Robert Owen in the latter's attempt to establish a socialistic community in 1825–26 in New Harmony, Ind. The failure of this experiment greatly discouraged him, but he sought to accomplish the same thing by individual sovereignty. In his opinion a righteous reward for labor was a similar amount of labor, which view he illustrated by the hypothesis, "If I am a bricklayer, and need the services of a physician, an hour of my work in bricklaying is the proper recompense to be given the physician for an hour of his services." He carried out this plan in Cincinnati, O., where for two years he was successful in an enterprise called the "time store." He was the author of *True Civilization*, in which he explained his theories. He died in Boston, Mass., April 14, 1874.

Warren, MERCY, historian; born in Barnstable, Mass., Sept. 25, 1728; was

MERCY WARREN.

the wife of Gen. James Warren and sister of James Otis. Her mind was as strong and active as that of her fiery brother, but she was restrained from taking public part in the politics of the day by her sex. She was a poet of much excellence, and corresponded with the leading statesmen of the day. She excelled in dramatic

composition, and produced *The Group*, a political satire; *The Adulator;* and two tragedies of five acts each, called *The Sack of Rome* and *Ladies of Castile.* The latter were written during the earlier years of the Revolutionary War, and published in 1778, and were full of patriotic sentiments; also a *History of the Revolutionary War.* She died in Plymouth, Oct. 19, 1814.

Warren, Sir Peter, naval officer; born in Ireland in 1702; entered the British navy in 1727, and was commodore in 1745, when he commanded an expedition against Louisburg, joining the land forces from Massachusetts under General Pepperell.

The besieged—consisting of 56 French regulars in bad condition and distrusted by their officers, and 1,300 or 1,400 rustics, fishermen, and half-breeds who served as an irregular militia. Within two days a small party of the colonials occupied the formidable Grand Battery.

A profuse cannonading ensued on both sides, the French gunners being, as a rule, better marksmen than the colonials. Occasionally the garrison would make a sortie; but the officers would not allow them to venture far beyond the walls. On May 19 a French vessel was captured, laden with ammunition and provisions, which were quite as essential for the besiegers as for the besieged; for the colonial army soon ran short of stores of every description, and during the final three weeks was threadbare, while shoes were at a premium. Camp diseases also harried the provincials, and once (May 28) but twenty-one hundred men out of the four thousand were fit for duty.

Fresh arrivals increased Warren's fleet to eleven ships, with an aggregate of 524 guns, quite sufficient effectively to aid in the bombardment, which laid the town in ruins, it being calculated that 9,000 cannon-balls and 600 bombs had been planted within the walls. In due time Lighthouse Point was gained by the English, and then the Island Battery succumbed. Finally, the inhabitants compelled the garrison to surrender, which it did June 16, with the stipulation that the troops should march out with arms and colors, but that all within the fortress, soldier or civilian, should take oath not again to bear arms against King George or his allies during the ensuing twelvemonth. See Louisburg.

Warren was made a rear-admiral, and, in 1747, defeated the French in an action off Cape Finisterre, capturing the greater part of their fleet. Admiral Warren married the eldest daughter of Stephen De Lancey, of New York, and became the owner of a large tract of land in the Mohawk region, in charge of which he placed his nephew, William Johnson. Sir Peter died in Ireland, July 29, 1752.

Warrington, Lewis, naval officer; born in Williamsburg, Va., Nov. 3, 1782; graduated at the College of William and Mary in 1798, and entered the navy in 1800. He was an officer of the *Chesapeake* at the

LEWIS WARRINGTON.

time of her encounter with the *Leopard* (see Chesapeake, The). For his capture of the *Epervier* (see Peacock, The) Congress gave him the thanks of the nation and a gold medal. In June, 1815, while cruising in the East India Waters, he captured the *Nautilus*, the last prize of the war. He died in Washington, D. C., Oct. 12, 1851.

Wars of the United States. The following shows the military and naval forces employed by the United States in the several wars since and including the War of the Revolution, with dates of wars and numbers of troops engaged:

War.	Dates. From—	Dates. To—	Troops engaged. Regulars.	Militia and volunteers.	Navy.	Total.	Individuals (estimated).
Revolution, war of the	Apr. 19, 1775	Apr. 11, 1783	130,711	58,750	15,000	.....	.....
Estimated additional	.....	.....	.....	105,330	.....	309,791	184,038
Northwestern Indian war with the Miamis, Wyandots, Delawares, Pottawatomies, Shawnees, Chippewas, and Ottawas. (General Harmer)	Sept. 19, 1790	.....	320	1,133	.....	1,453	
(General St. Clair)	.....	.....	.....	.....	8,983	2,300	5,627
(General Wayne)	.....	Aug. 3, 1795	2,843	2,337	.....	5,230	
France, war with	July 9, 1798	Sept. 30, 1800	.....	.....	4,593	4,593	3,216
Tripoli, Africa, war with	June 10, 1801	June 4, 1805	.....	.....	3,330	3,330	2,331
Northwestern Indian War, General Harrison	Sept. 11, 1811	Oct. —, 1813	250	660	.....	910	676
Great Britain, war with, 1812	June 18, 1812	Feb. 17, 1815	85,000	471,622	20,000	576,622	286,730
Creek Indian War, Alabama	July 27, 1813	Aug. 9, 1814	600	13,181	.....	13,781	9,048
Seminole or Florida and Georgia Indian War	Nov. 20, 1817	Oct. 31, 1818	1,000	5,911	.....	6,911	4,643
Winnebago expedition, Wisconsin, also called La Fever Indian War (no fighting)	June —, 1827	Sept. —, 1827	900	516	.....	1,416	1,330
Sac and Fox Indian War in Illinois	1831	1831	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Black Hawk Indian War	Apr. 26, 1832	Sept. 21, 1832	1,339	5,126	.....	6,465	5,900
Cherokee disturbance and removal	1833	1839	.....	9,494	.....	9,494	5,547
Seminole or Florida War	Dec. 23, 1835	Aug. 14, 1842	11,169	29,953	.....	41,122	22,795
Sabine Indian disturbances, Southwestern frontier, La., Ark., and Tex. (no fighting)	Apr. —, 1836	June —, 1837	1,323	3,106	.....	4,429	3,365
Creek Indian disturbance in Alabama	May 5, 1836	Sept. 30, 1837	935	12,483	.....	13,418	10,204
New York, Aroostook, and Canada (Patriot War) frontier disturbances	1838	1839	.....	1,500	.....	1,500	1,050
Florida war with the Seminole Indians	1842	Dec. 31, 1858	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Mexico, war with	Apr. 24, 1846	May 30, 1848	30,954	73,776	7,500	112,230	78,718
Cayuse Indian War, Oregon, Oregon volunteers	1848	1848	*	1,116	.....	1,116	1,005
Texas and New Mexico Indian War	1849	1856	5,050	1,415	.....	6,465	4,243
Apache, Navaho, and Utah War	1849	1855	1,500	1,031	.....	2,561	1,785
California Indian disturbance, Yuma expedition	Dec. —, 1851	Apr. —, 1852	265	.....	.....	265	.....
Utah Indian disturbance	1851	1853	10	530	.....	540	540
Oregon and Washington Indian War, Rogue River, Yakima, Klikitat, Klamath, and Salmon River	1851	Dec. 31, 1856	850	6,379	.....	7,229	5,145
Comanche Indian War	1854	1854	.....	503	.....	503	425
Seminole or Florida Indian War	Dec. 20, 1855	May 8, 1858	.....	2,687	.....	2,687	1,715
Rebellion, war of the (actual hostilities, however, commenced upon the firing on Fort Sumter, Apr. 12, 1861, and ceased by the surrender of the Confederate forces under Gen. Kirby Smith, May 26, 1865)	Apr. 15, 1861	Aug. 20, 1866	126,587	2,545,754	105,963	2,778,304	2,213,363
Spanish-American War (actual hostilities ceased Aug. 13, 1898)	Apr. 21, 1898	Apr. 11, 1899	57,329	223,235	†31,959	†312,523	312,000
Philippine Islands, insurrection in	Feb. 4, 1899	July 4, 1902	76,416	50,052	†13,570	†140,038	139,438
Expedition for the relief of United States legation at Peking, China	July 6, 1900	May 27, 1901	5,000	‡	†1,913	†6,913	6,713

* No regulars.

† Officers in U. S. marine corps included, but not officers in U. S. navy proper.

‡ No volunteers.

War-ships. CLASSIFICATION OF. The division of the vessels in a navy according to rating and type. In the United States navy the basis of rating is the displacement of a vessel, or, practically, its weight. According to the navy regulations under Executive order of June 7, 1901, vessels are rated as follows: (1) First rates, men-of-war of 8,000 tons and above; (2) Second rates, men-of-war only of 4,000 tons and under 8,000 tons, and converted and auxiliary vessels of 6,000 tons and above, except colliers, refrigerating-ships, distilling-ships, tank steamers, repair ships, hospital-ships, and other vessels constructed or equipped for special purposes; (3) Third rates, men-of-war from 1,000 to 4,000 tons, converted and auxiliary vessels from 1,000 to 6,000 tons, and colliers, refrigerating-ships, supply-ships, distilling-ships, tank steamers, repair ships, hospital-ships, and other vessels constructed or equipped for special purposes of 4,000 tons and above; (4) fourth rates, all other rated vessels. Torpedo-boat destroyers, torpedo-boats, tugs, sailing-vessels, and receiving-ships are not rated. There is no distinction in rating between first-line battle-ships and the so-called dreadnoughts.

The classification by type comprises thirty-two distinct types—*viz.*: First and second line battle-ships; armored, protected, unprotected, and auxiliary, and scout cruisers; single and double turret monitors; ordinary, light draft, and composite gun-boats; three types of training-ships; torpedo-boat destroyers; steel, wooden, and submarine torpedo boats; tugs; converted yachts; colliers; transports; supply, hospital, refrigerating, receiving, and prison ships; and special class.

First and second line battle-ships are named after the States and range in displacement from 10,288 to 31,400 tons (three authorized in 1914 will each displace 32,000 tons); armored cruisers after States and large cities; single-turret harbor defense monitors, after mountains and medium cities; double-turret monitors, after various persons, places, etc., as *Amphitrite*, *Miantonomah*, *Monterey*, *Puritan*, and *Terror;* protected cruisers, after large cities; unprotected and scout cruisers, after medium cities; gun-boats, generally from small cities and several former Spanish possessions; torpedo-boat destroyers and torpedo-boats, from deceased naval officers; sub-marine torpedo-boats, from the fish family; tugs, from Indian tribes and chiefs; converted yachts, from the bird family, mythology, small cities, insects, and miscellaneous; colliers, from classical, mythological, and planetary sources; and hospital-ships, from distinctive sources, as *Relief* and *Solace*.

Warwick River, SKIRMISH ON. On April 16, 1862, a division of the 4th Corps, General Smith, attacked some Confederates between the mills of Lee and Wisner, on the Warwick River. They were from McClellan's army, then besieging the Confederate lines at Yorktown. The attempt to carry the intrenchments there failed, with a loss of 100 men. The Confederates lost seventy-five.

Washburn, EMORY, jurist; born in Leicester, Mass., Feb. 14, 1800; graduated at Williams College in 1817; admitted to the bar in 1821; practised in Leicester, Mass., in 1821–28; settled in Worcester in the latter year and was there prominent in his profession for about thirty years; judge of the court of common pleas in 1844–48; elected governor of Massachusetts in 1853 and 1854; professor of law at Harvard University in 1856–76. He was the author of *Judicial History of Massachusetts; History of Leicester; Treatise on the American Law of Real Property; Treatise on the American Law of Easements and Servitudes*, etc. He died in Cambridge, Mass., March 18, 1877.

Washburn, WILLIAM BARRETT, statesman; born in Winchendon, Mass., Jan. 31, 1820; graduated at Yale in 1844; member of the State legislature 1850–54; member of Congress 1862–72; governor of Massachusetts 1872–74; United States Senator 1874–75. He died in Springfield, Mass., Oct. 5, 1887.

Washburn, WILLIAM DREW, manufacturer; born in Livermore, Me., Jan. 14, 1831; was graduated at Bowdoin College in 1854; studied law and began practice in Minnesota in 1857; later acquired large interests in the lumber, flour, and railroad industries. He was a member of Congress in 1879–85; a United States Senator in 1889–95. He died July 29, 1912.

Washburne, CADWALLADER COLDEN,

military officer; born in Livermore, Me., April 22, 1818; brother of Elihu Benjamin Washburne; was a land surveyor in early life, and afterwards a lawyer; went West in 1839, and finally settled at La Crosse, Wis., in 1859. He was in Congress from 1856 to 1862; a delegate to the peace conference in 1861, and soon after the attack on Fort Sumter he raised the 2d Wisconsin Cavalry, of which he became colonel, and, in December, 1861, conducted a successful expedition from Helena, Ark., into the interior of Mississippi. He was exceedingly active and efficient in the command of divisions in operations around Vicksburg in 1863, and afterwards served with distinction under Banks in Louisiana. He was made brigadier-general of volunteers in July, 1862, and major-general in November. From 1867 till 1871 he was a member of Congress, and in the latter year was chosen governor of Wisconsin. He died in Eureka Springs, Ark., May 14, 1882.

Washburne, Elihu Benjamin, diplomatist; born in Livermore, Me., Sept. 23, 1816; was first a printer and then a lawyer, and settled to practise in Galena, Ill. He was in Congress from 1853 to 1869 continuously (excepting one term), where he was a Republican leader and chairman of the committee on commerce (1857–65). He was awarded the title of "Father of the House." He procured the appointment of Ulysses S. Grant as brigadier-general, and when the latter became President he called Washburne to a seat in his cabinet as Secretary of State. He soon afterwards accepted the mission to France, which he retained throughout the Franco-Prussian War. He edited *History of the English Settlement in Edwards County, Illinois.* He died in Chicago, Ill., Oct. 22, 1887.

Washington, Booker Taliaferro, educator; born of negro parents near Hale's Ford, Va., about 1859; graduated at Hampton Institute, Va., in 1875; and was an instructor there till 1881, when he was elected principal of the Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute. His success in organizing and directing that institution has brought him into much prominence. He has also attained a high reputation as a speaker on educational and racial subjects. His publications include *Sowing and Reaping; Up from Slavery; Future of the American Negro; Story of My Life and Work; Tuskegee and its People; Life of Frederick Douglass; The Negro in Business; The Story of the Negro,* etc. In October, 1901, on the invitation of President Roosevelt, he dined at the White House, an incident which created a storm of disapproval in the Southern States.

Washington, Bushrod, jurist; born in Westmoreland county, Va., June 5, 1762; a nephew of President Washington; graduated at the College of William and Mary in 1778, and studied law with James Wilson, in Philadelphia, becoming a successful practitioner. At Yorktown he served as a private soldier, and was a member of the Virginia Assembly in 1787; also a member of the Virginia convention that ratified the national Constitution. In December, 1798, he was appointed associate justice of the United States Supreme Court, which office he held till his death, in Philadelphia, Nov. 26, 1829. He was the first president of the American Colonization Society.

WASHINGTON, CITY OF

Washington, city and capital of the United States of America; originally planned for the national capital by President Washington, Andrew Ellicott, and Major Pierre Charles L'Enfant, the City of Versailles, France, being selected as its model; first known as "The Federal City," subsequently named in honor of the first President; popularly known as "The City of Magnificent Distances"; population, 1900, 278,718; (1910), 331,069.

Location, Area, etc.—The city is now coextensive with the District of Columbia; is on the east bank of the Potomac River between the Anacostia, or East Branch, and Rock Creek on the west; is separated by the Potomac from Virginia and otherwise bounded by Maryland; and has an area of 69¼ square miles. It is 40 miles from Baltimore, 106 above the mouth of the Potomac, 136 from Philadelphia, 185 from the Atlantic Ocean, and

230 from New York. The river here is one mile wide and is accessible to coastwise ships of ordinary draught, this being its highest navigable point. The city is on the line of the Baltimore & Ohio, the Baltimore & Potomac (Pennsylvania system), the Philadelphia, Wilmington, & Baltimore, the Chesapeake & Ohio, and several branch railways, and on the Chesapeake & Ohio Canal.

The main part of the city is connected with the suburbs by several bridges. In 1901 Congress authorized the replacing of the famous Long Bridge, uniting the city with the Virginia shore, by a new structure for railway purposes exclusively, and the construction of a new bridge for general highway traffic a little to the south. The new Long Bridge was completed in 1904. Georgetown, or West Washington, is connected with Virginia by the Aqueduct Bridge, separate bridges connect the city with the Anacostia and Twining suburbs, an iron truss bridge has supplanted the old chain bridge at Little Falls, and there is an iron bridge, Bennington's, about a mile above the Navy-yard.

Topography.—Washington is the result of the first attempt in America to create a city for a specific purpose. Francis Pope, an eccentric Englishman, purchased the site of the city in 1663, and undertook to establish a modern Rome, giving that name to the place, calling the chief branch of the river the Tiber, and the most elevated portion the Capitoline Hill. After the States of Maryland and Virginia had jointly ceded a tract of land for a Federal district, Congress provided (1791) for the laying out of the city. Under this authority, President Washington availed himself of his skill as a surveyor and designated the boundaries of the city and where its public squares and buildings should be located. The actual work of starting the city was based on topographical plans drawn up by Mr. Elliott and Major L'Enfant, the latter a French engineer.

The main portion of the city is on a peninsula between the Potomac and Anacostia rivers. Hills rising in places to from 150 to 400 feet form a picturesque amphitheatre and admirably set off the majestic Capitol, which occupies a site ninety feet above the level of the Potomac. The streets and avenues are from 70 to 160 feet wide. The former extend north, south, east, and west, and the latter are in two series, one radiating from the Capitol, the other from the White House, and these are named after the States. There is a liberal provision of public squares and "circles" at the intersection of the leading thoroughfares, and streets and avenues are bountifully fringed with shade trees, in some places four rows deep. Massachusetts Avenue extends entirely across the city, and has many fine residential sections. Pennsylvania Avenue, especially between the Capitol and the White House, is the principal thoroughfare, 160 feet wide, and containing the leading hotels, theatres, and stores. With the interruptions of the Capitol and White House grounds, it also extends across the city. Of the cross streets, 7th, intersecting Pennsylvania Avenue between the Capitol and Treasury Building, and containing many retail stores, and 14th are the most important. F Street, between 7th and 15th, is the leading shopping centre; and 9th Street, from Pennsylvania Avenue to F Street, is wholly devoted to business.

Public Interests.—In 1911 the city, including the former town of Georgetown, now known as West Washington, had 465 miles of streets, of which 305 miles were paved; 550 miles of sewers; a water-works system owned by the city that cost $15,971,000, had a daily capacity of 89,500,000 gallons, and was provided with a newly completed filtration plant; a police force of 732 men which cost annually about $975,000; and a fire department of 459 men, costing annually about $520,000. On Oct. 1, 1910, the total bonded debt was $8,889,250, due Aug. 1, 1924, being the balance of an issue of $15,000,000. The annual cost of maintaining the local government was reported at $12,815,795. Taxable property for 1910 was assessed as follows: Real estate, $285,153,771; personal, $38,802,982—total, $323,956,753; and the tax rate was $15 per $1,000.

One of the most needed improvements ever undertaken in the city was the work of reclaiming the great stretch of previously useless flats, which had always been a blot on the magnificent panorama of the city as well as a most serious menace to

health. The recovery of this land and its conversion into an attractive pleasure-ground gave the river-front in the immediate vicinity of the Washington Monument a wealth of unsurpassed beauty. This new portion of the city's park system is connected with the grounds about the Monument—which extend along the river for more than half a mile—and is provided with noteworthy avenues, footways, speeding-courses, artificial islands, a series of lakes and ponds, a large basin for yachts and rowboats, and stretches of noble specimens of forest growth.

In 1901 Congress voted funds to enable a commission of experts to work out a comprehensive scheme for beautifying the city. This commission, selected through the agency of the American Institute of Architects, consists of Daniel H. Burnham, Frederic Law Olmsted, Jr., Charles F. McKim, and Augustus Saint-Gaudens. It is interesting to note here that, having given the project careful preliminary consideration, the commission deemed it wise to take the plans laid out by Washington, Ellicott, and L'Enfant as the basis of their scheme. The reclamation of the Potomac flats by United States Engineers at a cost of nearly $2,000,000, adds a problem to the general scheme of treatment that was not considered in the original planning of the city.

In October, 1905, plans were perfected for a new District Building to cost $2,500,000, and to be erected in the triangle designated by the park commissioners for public buildings. The new edifice was designed with the idea of working it into the scheme for beautifying Pennsylvania Avenue and the Mall. South of it are the new Agricultural Department Building and the new National Museum. Visitors were able to see a marked improvement in the stretch of parking from the Capitol to the White House. The completion of the various improvements in this section of the city gives it one of the most beautiful parkways in the world, stretching from the Capitol on the east to the Potomac on the west.

Government.—From the time of its creation by acts of Congress in 1790 and 1791 till 1871 there were three separate local governments in the District of Columbia, consisting of the municipality of Washington, the town of Georgetown, and the Levy Court, the last having jurisdiction in the District outside of the limits of the city and town. In 1871 Congress abolished these separate authorities and provided for the entire District the form of government in operation in the organized territories, with a governor, secretary, board of public works, a council appointed by the President of the United States, and a house of delegates and a delegate in Congress elected by the citizens. This form of government lasted about three years, and it was during this period that the modernizing and beautifying of the city were undertaken, not, however, without a remarkable scandal involving the local officials.

In 1874 a temporary government by three commissioners was substituted, and in 1878 Congress established the present form, itself making all general laws for the District, but vesting in three commissioners authority to make a number of essential regulations of a purely municipal character. Two of the commissioners are now appointed by the President from among citizens of the District, one Republican and one Democrat, and the third one, who must be an engineer officer of the army, is detailed by the President. All subordinate officials are appointed by the commissioners. The civilian commissioners are appointed for a term of three years; the military commissioner serves during the pleasure of the President; each receives a salary of $5,000 per annum; and the military member is relieved of all other duty while serving as commissioner. At the present time the District is not directly represented in Congress, and the citizens have no elective privileges.

Banking and Insurance.—On Sept. 1, 1910, there were reported twelve national banks in operation, having a combined capital of $6,052,000; surplus, $4,450,000; individual deposits, $23,056,085; outstanding circulation, $5,549,520; loans and discounts, $22,831,732; and assets and liabilities balancing at $49,135,919. Five loan and trust companies reported combined capital, $8,000,000; surplus, $3,050,000; individual deposits, $24,358,631; and resources and liabilities, $37,457,540. There were also fifteen savings and State

banks, with capital, $1,609,420; deposits, $11,875,856; and resources, $14,528,395. In the year ending Sept. 30, 1910, the exchanges at the United States clearing-house here amounted to $363,185,300, an increase in a year of $43,844,100.

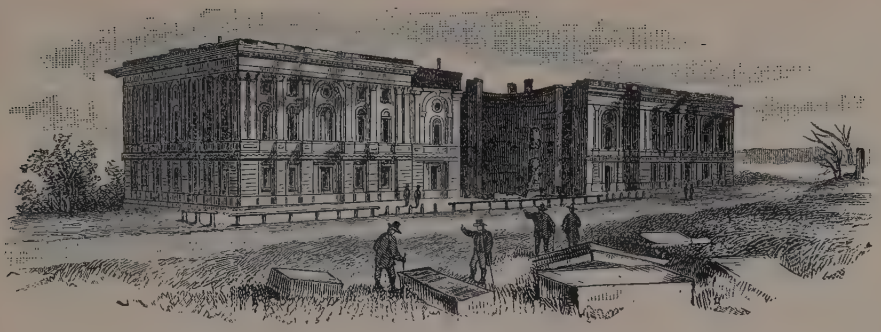
Commerce.—The old United States Custom House at Georgetown, now West Washington, is still maintained, and in the calendar year 1910, imports of merchandise to the value of $757,369 and exports, $3,974, were registered here.

Manufactures.—According to the United States census of 1900 there were in the city 3,173 manufacturing and mechanical industries, which were operated on a total capital of $42,081,065; employed 24,842 wage-earners; paid for wages $14,692,806, and for materials used in manufacturing $19,451,085; and had a combined product valued at $47,902,109. Included in the foregoing were eighty-five plants belonging to the federal government, representing a capital investment of $17,652,110; employing an average of 8,396 persons; paying $6,357,377 for wages and $2,731,104 for materials; and having a combined output valued at $9,887,355. Twenty per cent. of the total value of the manufacturing and mechanical industries of the city was the product of government establishments and institutions. The principal government items were printing and publishing to the value of $4,292,804; steel engraving and printing, $2,273,859; and ordnance and ordnance stores, $2,208,159.

In 1905 the Bureau of the Census reported for the city, exclusive of government plants, 483 manufacturing establishments under the factory-system classification, employing a combined capital of $20,199,783 and 6,299 wage-earners; paying $3,658,370 for wages and $7,731,971 for materials; and having an output valued at $18,359,159—an increase in five years of $2,239,285 in capital and $1,932,751 in value of products.

Churches and Charities.—According to the special report of the federal Bureau of the Census on *Religious Bodies* (1910), the city had 289 religious organizations, of which 257 were Protestant; 136,759 communicants or members (91,474 Protestant); 264 church edifices (245 Protestant) and forty-three halls used for religious purposes (thirty-eight Protestant); church property valued at $10,025,122 ($8,552,072 Protestant); and 297 Sunday-schools, with 5,338 officers and teachers and 56,771 scholars (50,801 Protestant). The strongest denominations numerically are the Roman Catholic (43,778), Colored Baptist (26,203), Protestant Episcopal (13,692), Methodist Episcopal (11,019), and Baptist (10,777). The city is the seat of an apostolic delegate of the Roman Catholic Church, and of a Protestant Episcopal, Methodist Episcopal, and African Methodist Episcopal Zion bishop. The most noteworthy Baptist church is Calvary, on H and 8th streets. Among the Methodist churches the Metropolitan, on C and 4½ streets, the Foundry, on G Street near 14th, and the Mount Vernon, on K and 9th streets, are the most conspicuous. The Roman Catholic churches include St. Matthew's, on Rhode Island Avenue near Connecticut Avenue, which is usually attended by Catholic members of the Diplomatic Corps; St. Aloysius's, on North Capitol and I streets; St. Dominic's, on F and 6th streets, and St. Augustine's, on 15th Street. The principal Protestant Episcopal churches are St. John's, fronting Lafayette Square, a venerable structure that Presidents Madison and Monroe attended; the Epiphany, on G Street; and the Ascension, on Massachusetts Avenue and 12th Street, considered by many the handsomest church edifice in the city. Presbyterianism is represented by the First, on 4½ Street near C; the Covenant, on Connecticut Avenue and 18th Street; and the New York Avenue, on that avenue near 14th Street. Other churches deserving of mention are the Garfield Memorial (Christian), on Vermont Avenue near N Street; All Souls' (Unitarian), on L and 14th streets; Church of Our Father (Universalist), on L and 13th streets; and the First Congregational, on G and 10th streets.

The philanthropic side of Washington life reflects comprehensive preparation and adequate sustentation. The hospitals include the Government Asylum for the Insane of the Army, Navy, and District of Columbia, the Providence, Garfield, Emergency, National Homœopathic, Children's, Columbia for Women, Freedmen's, and Sibley Memorial. Of homes and retreats



REMAINS OF THE CAPITOL AFTER THE FIRE, 1814.

there are the Washington, St. Joseph's, St. Ann's, and St. Vincent's orphan asylums; the Louise Home for Indigent Gentlewomen; a Home for the Aged; House of the Good Shepherd; Industrial Home and School; and a Soldiers' Home for disabled soldiers of the regular army, the favorite summer retreat of President Lincoln.

Schools and Colleges.—The last official reports gave the school population at 68,871, of whom 53,385 were enrolled in the public schools, and 43,090 were in average daily attendance. The private-school enrolment was estimated at 6,000. There were 184 buildings used for public-school purposes, and the value of all public-school property was reported at $7,100,000.

REMAINS OF THE PRESIDENT'S HOUSE AFTER THE FIRE, 1814.

During the school year under review the receipts from the national government appropriation and local taxation aggregated $2,424,610; and the total expenditure was $2,208,080, including $1,357,229 for teachers' and superintendents' salaries. For secondary instruction there were six public high schools, twenty private high schools and academies, four manual training schools and two commercial schools.

For higher instruction there were 7 colleges and universities, together reporting 4 fellowships, 124 scholarships, 4,010 students in all departments, 548 professors and instructors, 236,530 volumes in the libraries, $363,562 in library property, $1,062,979 in scientific apparatus, furniture, etc., $5,298,781 in grounds and buildings, and $1,574,174 in productive funds, reported by four institutions. The institutions were the Catholic University of America (R. C.), opened in 1889; Columbian University (Bapt.), 1821, now known as the George Washington University; Gallaudet College (non-sect.), 1864; Georgetown University (R. C.), 1789; Gonzaga College (R. C.), 1821; Howard University (non-sect.), 1867; and St. John's College (R. C.), 1870. To the foregoing should be added the American University (Meth. Epis.), the establishment of which was authorized by the General Conference in 1892, and whose first building, the College of History, was dedicated in 1897; the Monastery and College of the Holy Land (R. C.), established by the Franciscan Friars of the Holy Land for training missionaries, and dedicated in 1899; and the Washington Christian College (non-sectarian), opened in 1902. There was one college exclusively for women, Trinity (R. C.), 1900. Conspicuous among the private secondary schools is the Convent of the Visitation, near Georgetown University, founded in 1799.

Professional schools included two of

theology, six of law, three of medicine, three of dentistry, two of pharmacy, two of veterinary surgery, and nine for training nurses, connected with the hospitals. The National Deaf Mute College and Columbia Institution for the Deaf and Dumb is the only college for deaf mutes in the world. The public, school, departmental, and society libraries number ninety and contain upward of 2,715,000 volumes and nearly 1,000,000 pamphlets.

Monuments.—There is no city in America so justly entitled to the popular name of "Monumental City" as Washington. Surpassing all others in size and historical interest is the Washington Monument on the Mall near 14th Street, the corner-stone of which was laid July 4, 1848. The inception of the work was due to a popular association organized to honor the first President by the tallest monument in the world. The sum of $230,000 was raised by voluntary subscription and after this sum had been expended the work of construction ceased till Congress in 1876 directed its completion. Col. Thomas L. Casey, U. S. Engineers, was placed in charge of the new work, and the great monument was completed in 1885. The monument rests on a foundation 104 feet square and 37 feet deep; is built of Maryland marble lined with gneiss; the walls are 15 feet thick at the base, 12 feet at the height of 152 feet, 8 feet at 162 feet, and 1½ at the top; the base of the shaft is 55 feet 5½ inches square, its top at the base of the pyramid 34 feet 5½ inches; extreme height, 555 feet 5½ inches; weight, including foundation, 81,117 long tons; total cost, $1,187,710. It is thus the highest stone structure in the world, and is only surpassed in height by the steel Eiffel Tower in Paris. The top is reached by an interior stairway and elevator.

The following is a brief mention of other conspicuous monuments:

Colossal marble monument to Washington, by Horatio Greenough, originally intended for the Rotunda of the Capitol, but subsequently erected in the East Park; cost $40,000.

Bronze equestrian statue of Andrew Jackson, by Clark Mills, in Lafayette Square; cost $50,000.

Another monument to Washington, by Clark Mills, at intersection of Pennsylvania and New Hampshire avenues and 23d Street; cost $50,000.

Equestrian statue of Gen. Winfield Scott, by H. K. Brown, at intersection of Massachusetts and Rhode Island avenues; cost $20,000; and another by Launt Thompson at the Soldiers' Home; cost $18,000.

Colossal bronze statue of Lincoln, by Thomas Ball, in Lincoln Park; cost $17,000; another by Lot Flannery in Judiciary Square.

Bronze equestrian statue of Gen. John B. McPherson, by Louis T. Robisso, in McPherson Square; cost $48,500.

Bronze equestrian statue of Gen. Nathanael Greene, by Lot Flannery, on Stanton Square; cost $50,000.

Lafayette Monument with statues of Lafayette, Rochambeau, d'Estaing, de Grasse, and Duportail, by Antoine Falquiere and Antonin Mercie, at southeast corner of Lafayette Square.

Bronze statue of Gen. John A. Rawlins, by Bailey, on Pennsylvania Avenue near 9th Street.

Statue of Daniel Webster, by Trentenoro, on Scott Circle.

Statue of Admiral David G. Farragut, by Vinnie Ream, on Farragut Square.

Equestrian statue of Gen. George H. Thomas, by Ward, at intersection of Massachusetts and Vermont avenues and 14th Street.

Marble statue of Benjamin Franklin on Pennsylvania Avenue and 10th Street.

Bronze statue of Martin Luther in Luther Place.

Bronze statue of President Garfield, by Ward, at Maryland Avenue entrance to Capitol Park.

Heroic bronze statue of Admiral S. F. Dupont, by Launt Thompson, in Dupont Circle.

Equestrian statue of Gen. Winfield S. Hancock on Pennsylvania Avenue and 7th Street.

Naval Monument on Pennsylvania Avenue near entrance to Capitol Grounds.

Statue of Chief-Justice Marshall, by Story, on the Capitol Grounds.

Bronze group, "Gallaudet Teaching Deaf Child," by Daniel C. French, on grounds of National Deaf Mute College.

Colossal marble statues of "Peace" and

"War" on the right and left of entrance to Capitol.

Bronze statue "Liberty," by Crawford, surmounting dome of the Capitol.

Statue of Frederick the Great, presented to the American people by Emperor William II. and unveiled with international ceremonies Nov. 19, 1904, on esplanade of American War College.

Monument to General Baron Steuben, dedicated Dec. 7, 1910.

Memorial to Major L'Enfant, over his grave in the National Cemetery at Arlington, dedicated May 22, 1911.

The old Hall of Representatives, now known as the National Statuary Hall, is a magnificent room, semicircular in form, 96 feet long and 57 feet high to the apex of the ceiling, which is painted in panel in imitation of the ceiling of the Pantheon in Rome. This hall was set apart by Congress in 1864 for its present purpose; each State was invited to send to it statues of two of its most eminent men. Here should be noted a statue of "Liberty" by Causici, one of "History" by Franzoni, and an eagle by Valaperti.

Government Buildings.—The national Capitol is the most magnificent public building in the world. It fronts east and stands on a plateau 88 feet above the level of the Potomac. The entire length of the building fom north to south is 751 feet 4 inches, its greatest dimension from east to west is 350 feet, and the area of ground covered by it is 153,112 square feet. The material used in the walls of the central portion is a light yellow freestone painted white, that of the walls of the two wings or extensions is white marble from the quarries at Lee, Mass., and that of the columns from the quarries at Cockeysville, Md. The Senate Chamber is 113 feet 3 inches long by 80 feet 3 inches wide and 36 feet high, and has galleries that will accommodate 1,000 persons. The Representatives' Hall is 139 feet long by 93 feet wide and 36 feet high. A grand bronze door, designed by Randolph Rogers, and cast by von Müller in Munich, 17 feet high, 9 feet wide, weight 20,000 pounds, cost $28,000, and representing the history of Columbus and the discovery of America, gives entrance to the Rotunda from the east portico.

The Rotunda is 97 feet 6 inches in diameter, and 180 feet 3 inches in height from the floor to the top of the canopy. The dome, originally of wood, now of iron, is crowned by a bronze statue of "Liberty," 19 feet 6 inches high, weighing 14,985 pounds, modelled by Crawford. The height of the dome above the base line of the east front is 287 feet 5 inches; from the top of the balustrade of the building, 217 feet 11 inches; its greatest diameter at the base is 135 feet 5 inches. The different rooms of the Capitol are striking both in architectural appearance and in artistic treatment. The total cost of the Capitol was $13,000,000.

Historically, the southeast corner-stone of the original building was laid by President Washington on Sept. 18, 1793. The north wing was finished in 1800 and the south wing in 1811. On Aug. 24, 1814, the interior of both wings was destroyed by fire, set by the British. The central portion of the building was begun in 1818, and the original building was completed in 1827 at a cost of $2,433,844. The corner-stone of the extensions was laid July 4, 1851, by President Fillmore, and these portions were first occupied for legislative purposes Jan. 4, 1859.

The White House, or official residence of the President, so named because built of stone painted white, was first occupied by President Adams in 1800, was burned by the British in 1814, was restored in 1818, and was considerably enlarged to accommodate increased business in 1902, and again enlarged in 1909, at a cost of $50,000, the new annex providing eleven additional rooms. The main building is two stories in height, with a portico on the north side containing the main entrance.

The Congressional Library, erected on the square facing the east side of the Capitol at a cost of more than $6,000,000, three stories high, 470 feet long by 340 feet wide, constructed of white New Hampshire granite, and having accommodations for 6,000,000 volumes, took the place of the original Library of Congress, founded in 1800, burned in 1814, and again partially in 1851, and used till the completion of the new building in 1897.

The State, War, and Navy Department Building, one of the largest of the public edifices, is a granite structure just west

of the White House, Roman Doric in style, 567 feet long, 342 feet wide, and four stories high, with four fronts. The State Department occupies the south portion, the War Department the north wing, and the Navy Department the east wing. The building contains 566 rooms, and cost $11,000,000.

The Patent Office, a bureau of the Department of the Interior, gives name to a building in the central part of the city, built of granite, marble, and freestone, 453 feet long by 351 feet wide, embellished with a classic pediment supported by six-

Square, 400 feet long, 200 feet wide, and 75 feet high, is conspicuous because of a band of sculpture in terra-cotta, 3 feet high and 1,200 feet long, on the exterior, and on a level with the second floor, representing an army in campaign supported by a naval force of men and boats.

The United States Treasury Building on 15th Street, one and a quarter miles west of the Capitol, is 468 feet long by 264 feet wide, three stories high above basement, is built of Virginia freestone and Dix Island granite, contains about 200 rooms, and cost $6,000,000.

MAP SHOWING THE DEFENCES OF WASHINGTON.

The Land Office, formerly the Post Office, is of white marble, 300 feet long, 204 feet wide, and three stories high, cost $1,700,000, and displays on the 8th Street front a sculptured representation of the telegraph and railroad.

Other conspicuous public bulidings are those of the Bureau of Education, the Department of Agriculture, the Army Medical Museum and Library, the Fish and Fisheries Commission, the United States Naval Observatory, the United

teen enormous Doric columns forming a portico. The floor of the model-room is 1,350 feet long.

The Pension Building, on Judiciary

States Navy-yard, and the Soldiers' Home.

Other Attractions.—Visitors should not fail to visit the Smithsonian Institution, the Botanical Gardens, the Corcoran Art Gallery, the Congressional Cemetery, the Zoological Park, Oak Hill Cemetery, the Arlington House opposite West Washington, Alexandria, seven miles below Washington, and Mount Vernon, the home and burial-place of the first President and his wife.

History.—Much of the history of the District of Columbia and of the city of Washington has been outlined in the preceding narrative. Chronologically, it may be stated that Georgetown was laid out under an act of the Assembly in 80 lots comprising 60 acres, May 15, 1751; that the Constitution of the United States gave Congress exclusive legislation over such a Federal District as it might acquire, Sept. 17, 1787; that Maryland ceded to Congress a tract ten miles square for the seat of the Federal Government, Dec. 23, 1788; that Virginia did the same, Dec. 3, 1789; and that Congress accepted the site for the purpose, July 16, 1790. In the following year President Washington appointed Thomas Johnson, Daniel Carroll (Md.), and David Stuart (Va.) commissioners to survey the Federal District, and on the completion of their work proclaimed the lines and boundaries of the district—a square comprising 64 square miles in Maryland and 36 in Virginia. The commissioners then agreed to call the Federal district the "Territory of Columbia" and the Federal city the "City of Washington," and to name the streets of the latter alphabetically one way and numerically the other.

Congress first met in Washington Nov. 17, 1800, and assumed jurisdiction of the District Feb. 27, 1801. The city was incorporated by Congress, with a mayor appointed by the President and a council elected by the people, May 3, 1802. After the battle of Bladensburg, the British entered the city and, Aug. 24, 1814, burned and destroyed the public buildings. A new charter was granted the city, with a mayor elected by the people, May 15, 1820; the corner-stone of the first lock in the Chesapeake & Ohio Canal was laid near Georgetown, May 29, 1829; the United States Naval Observatory was founded in 1842; and Congress retroceded to Virginia the 36 square miles of land received from that State, July 9, 1846.

A peace conference was held here, Feb. 4, 1861, and the first telegraph message from a military balloon was sent by Mr. Lowe to President Lincoln, June 18 following. Immediately after the battle of Bull Run energetic measures were taken to place defences around the city that should make it absolutely secure from attack. Gen. George B. McClellan, then freshly called to the chief command of the forces at and near Washington, with the assistance of Majors Barry and Barnard, projected a series of fortifications at prominent elevated points, and the latter two officers were detailed to construct them. So vigorously was the work prosecuted that in the course of a few months not less than fifty-two of these protective works were completed. At no subsequent time during the war did the Confederates ever seriously assail these fortifications, and at no time was the national capital really in danger.

Two Presidents of the United States were assassinated here—Lincoln in 1865 and Garfield in 1881. The remains of two distinguished personages who died abroad were brought here for final sepulture—John Howard Payne, author of "Home, Sweet Home," in 1883, and James Smithson, founder of the Smithsonian Institution, in 1904. The name of the city is indissolubly attached to one of the most important treaties in the world's history—that between the United States and Great Britain in 1871, and the city was the birthplace of the principles of international arbitration and commercial reciprocity and of the initiative of a second Peace Congress at The Hague.

WASHINGTON, GEORGE

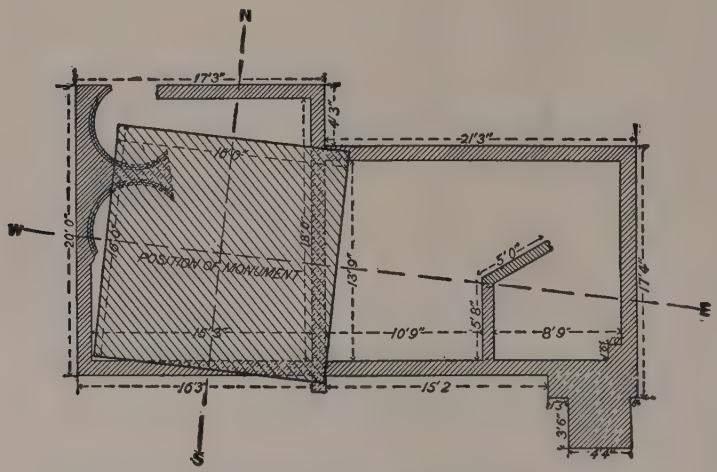
Washington, GEORGE, "Father of His Country"; born on Pope's Creek, Westmoreland co., Va., Feb. 22, 1732; was descended from an old and titled English family; and was the eldest child of his father's second wife, Mary Ball. His

father died when George was a small child, and the task of the education and guidance of the future leader through the dangers of youthhood devolved upon his mother. So judicious was her training that Washington, through life, remembered her affectionate care with profound gratitude. He received a common English education, and upon that foundation his naturally thoughtful and right-conditioned mind, with the cardinal virtues of truth, integrity, and justice, was built the structure of his greatness. He was always beloved by his young companions, and was invariably chosen the leader in their military plays.

He had a desire, at the age of fourteen years, to become a seaman, but was dissuaded from embarking by his mother. When he was seventeen years of age he had become one of the most accurate land surveyors in Virginia. He was appointed public surveyor at the age of eighteen.

In pursuit of his profession, he learned much of woodcraft and the topography of the country; also of the habits of the Indians in the camp and on the war-path. These were useful lessons, of great value to him in after-life. At the age of nineteen young Washington was appointed an adjutant-general of the militia of a district, with the rank of major, but soon afterward resigned to accompany his invalid half-brother, Lawrence, to Barbadoes, where George had the small-pox. His brother soon afterwards died, and by his will George became heir to the fine estate of Mount Vernon.

In 1753 he was sent on a delicate mission, by the governor of Virginia, to the commander of the French forces making encroachments on the English domain, and performed the duties with great credit, for which he was thanked by the Virginia legislature. So highly were his character and services valued, that when, in 1775, General Braddock came to make war on the French, Washington was chosen his principal aide-de-camp. After the defeat of Braddock (see BRADDOCK, EDWARD), he directed the retreat of the vanquished troops with great skill. At the age of twenty-seven he married the young widow Custis (see WASHINGTON, MARTHA), and they took up their abode at Mount Vernon, where he pursued the business of a farmer until 1774, when he was chosen to a seat in the Virginia legislature. He was also chosen a delegate to the first Continental Congress, and was a delegate the following year, when, in June, he was appointed

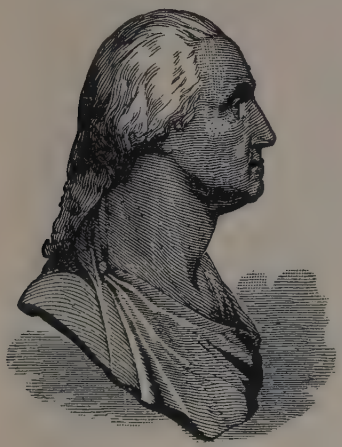


PLAN SHOWING FOUNDATION OF WAKEFIELD HOUSE, WESTMORELAND, VA., IN WHICH PRESIDENT WASHINGTON WAS BORN.

commander-in-chief of the Continental armies. For eight years Washington directed the feeble armies of the revolted colonies in their struggle for independence. At the return of peace he surrendered his commission into the hands of Congress, who gave it to him, and retired to private life at Mount Vernon, at the close of 1783.

FAC-SIMILE OF THE ENTRY OF WASHINGTON'S BIRTH IN HIS MOTHER'S BIBLE.

During all the national perplexities after the return of peace, incident to financial embarrassments and an imperfect system of government, Washington was still regarded as the public leader; and when the convention that formed the national Constitution assembled at Philadelphia, in 1787, he was there, a delegate from Virginia, and was chosen to preside over that body. When, under that Constitution, a President of the republic was to be chosen, all eyes were turned towards him as the fittest man for the place, and he was elected by the unanimous voice of the people. He presided over the affairs of the new nation eight years with great wisdom and fidelity, and with great skill and sagacity assisted in laying the permanent foundations of the republic.



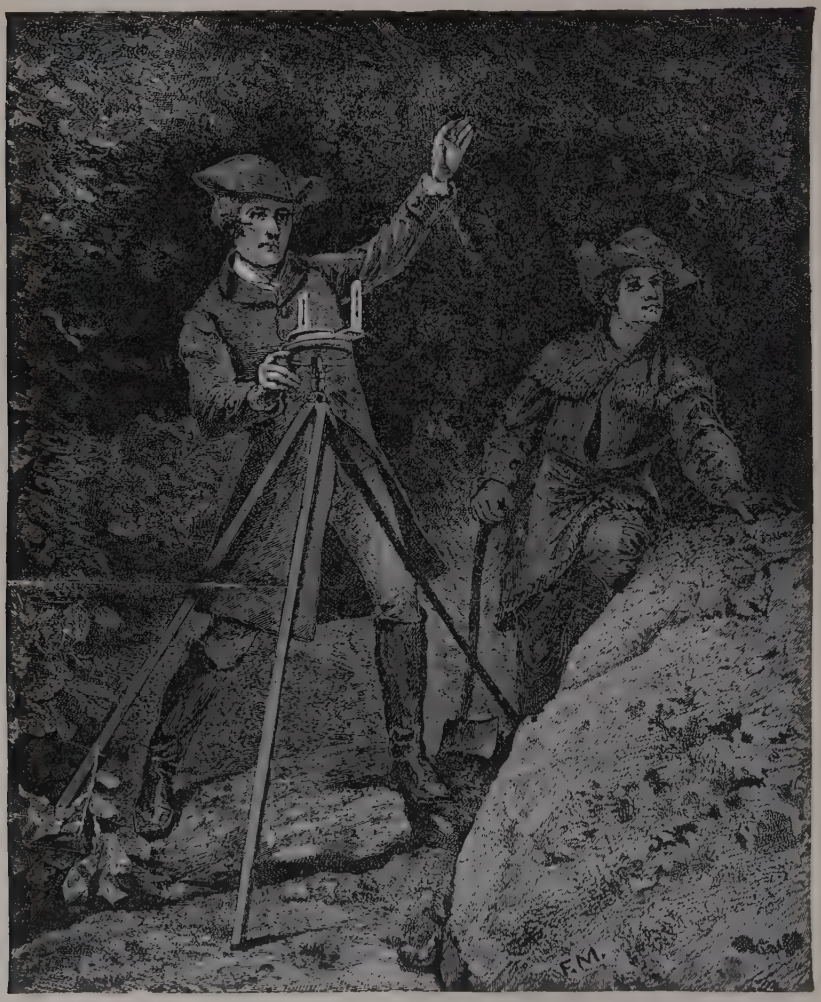
HOUDON'S BUST OF WASHINGTON.*

CAVE CASTLE, THE ANCIENT SEAT OF THE WASHINGTONS IN ENGLAND.

His administration embraced the most critical and eventful portion of our history.

* There were several different portraits of Washington painted from life. The first ever made was painted by Charles Wilson Peale, and is a three-quarter length, representing Washington in the costume of a Virginia colonel—a blue coat faced with red, bright metal buttons, having the number of his regiment (22d Militia) cast upon them, and dark-red waistcoat and breeches. Peale painted fourteen portraits of Washington at different times, half-lengths and full-lengths, the last in the fall of 1795, which is in the gallery of the New York Historical Society. Other artists had sittings by Washington, and produced portraits of various degrees of merit, the most famous and best-known of whom was Gilbert Stuart. Stuart painted three portraits from life. The first one he rubbed out, not being satisfied with it, and the last one, the head only finished, is the property of the Boston Athenæum. This is the head most often seen, and has been accepted as the standard portrait of the patriot; yet Stuart himself regarded his own portrait, as a likeness, inferior to that of the statue by Houdon, in the capitol at Richmond. The latter is, undoubtedly, the best likeness of Washington ever made, and should be regarded as the standard portrait. It cannot be otherwise, for it is from a plaster-cast from the living face, and a model of the rest of the bust, both made by the sculptor himself.

tory before the Civil War. A new government had to be organized, without any model to follow, and to guide the ship of state through dangerous seas required a loftiness of character in the pilot and commander seldom found, but Washington was equal to the requirements of his position, and he retired from public life without the least stain of merited reproach upon his intentions or his judgment. In the enjoyment of domestic happiness at Mount Vernon, for about three years, he was regarded more and more as the great and good man. Suddenly, on Dec. 14, 1799, the nation was called upon to mourn his death, after an illness of about twenty-four hours. His last words were, "It is well." The mother of Washington, Mary Ball, was the daughter of Col. W. Ball, to whom his father was married in March, 1730. George was their first-born of six children. With these she was left a widow when her eldest child was little more than ten years of age. In the latter years of her life she lived in Fredericksburg, in a modest house, on the northwest



WASHINGTON SURVEYING LAND IN VIRGINIA

RESIDENCE OF THE WASHINGTON FAMILY.*

corner of Charles and Lewis streets. There she died, and was buried a short distance from Fredericksburg, near a ledge of rocks, to which she often resorted for meditation, and which she had selected as her burial-place years before her death. Over the grave stands an unfinished monument of white marble. See WASHINGTONIANA.

COMBINED ARMS OF THE WASHINGTON FAMILY.

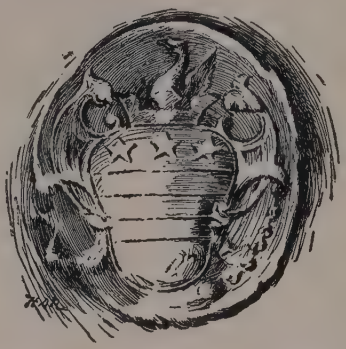
Washington's Addresses to the Churches. —Washington's addresses to the American churches, in reply to their congratulations upon his election to the Presidency, constitute one of the most interesting divisions of his writings, and illustrate one of the noblest and most salutary features of his life and influence. The governors and legislatures of many of the States, the mayors and aldermen of leading cities, the presidents and trustees of colleges, and the representatives of organizations of various character sent formal addresses to him, expressing their satisfaction in his inauguration, and his replies to all were full of dignity and wisdom; but his replies to the churches, which, as they met in general convention or otherwise during the months succeeding his election, successively addressed him, are especially memorable for their revelations of his broad spirit of toleration and sympathy and their inculcation of the duty of fraternity and mutual respect which should always govern the various religious bodies living together in the free republic.

It has been well said that all lines of our national policy seem to lead back to Washington as all roads lead to Rome. If party spirit becomes extravagant and dangerous, we turn to him for the best words with which to rebuke it. If reck-

* Soon after Washington's birth, the family moved to an estate in Stafford county. The plain farm-house in which they lived overlooked the Rappahannock River. There Washington's father died, when the former was about ten years of age, leaving a plantation to each of his sons.

less politicians would postpone the public peace and embroil the nation for their own selfish purposes, his word and great example are their shame and the people's refuge; and, whenever bigotry and intolerance raise their heads, and men would stir up the animosity of one part of the people against another in the name of religion, Washington's addresses to the churches will still be appealed to by good citizens. Such will remember how he wrote to the Lutheran, the Presbyterian, the Methodist, the Baptist, the Episcopalian, the Quaker, the Universalist, the Swedenborgian, the Roman Catholic, and the Jew, reminding all of their common duties as citizens, and assuring all of the common protection of the national government, which knows no differences of creeds, but holds all creeds alike before the law.

The student is referred to the valuable essay on *Washington's Religious Opinions*, in Sparks's edition of *Washington's Writings*, vol. xii., appendix, p. 399. Two expressions of Washington, quoted in this essay, should be given here as well supplementing the addresses printed in the leaflet. To Lafayette Washington wrote, Aug. 15, 1787, alluding to the proceedings of the Assembly of Notables: "I am not less ardent in my wish that you may succeed in your plan of toleration in religious matters. Being no bigot myself, I am disposed to indulge the professors of Christianity in the church with that road to heaven which to them shall seem the



WASHINGTON'S SEAL (From a letter to Bouquet, 1758).

MOUNT VERNON IN WASHINGTON'S DAY.

most direct, plainest, easiest, and least liable to exception." Again, in a letter to Sir Edward Newenham, Oct. 20, 1792: "Of all the animosities which have ex-

PRIVATE SEAL, 1783.

isted among mankind, those which are caused by difference of sentiments in religion appear to be the most inveterate and distressing, and ought most to be deprecated. I was in hopes that the enlightened and liberal policy which has marked the present age would at least have reconciled *Christians* of every denomination so far that we should never again see their religious disputes carried to such a pitch as to endanger the peace of society."

To the Ministers, Church-wardens, and Vestry-men of the German Lutheran Congregation, in and near the City of Philadelphia.

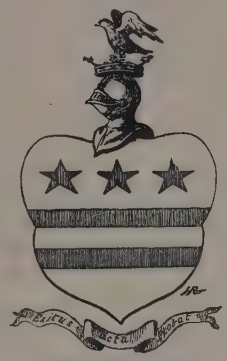
April 20th, 1789.

While I request you to accept my thanks for your kind address, I must profess myself highly gratified by the sentiments of esteem and consideration contained in it. The approbation my past conduct has received from so worthy a body of citizens as that, whose joy for my appointment you announce, is a proof of the indulgence with which my future transactions will be judged by them.

I could not, however, avoid apprehending, that the partiality of my countrymen in favour of the measures now pursued, had led them to expect too much from the present government, did not the same Providence, which has been visible in every stage of our progress to this interesting crisis, from a combination of circumstances, give us cause to hope for the accomplishment of all our reasonable desires.

Thus partaking with you in the pleasing anticipation of the blessings of a wise and efficient government, I flatter myself that opportunities will not be wanting for me to show my disposition to encourage the domestic and public virtues of industry, economy, patriotism, philanthropy, and that righteousness which exalteth a nation.

I rejoice in having so suitable an occasion to testify the reciprocity of my esteem for the numerous people whom you represent. From the excellent character for diligence, sobriety, and virtue, which the Germans in general, who are settled in America, have ever maintained, I cannot forbear felicitating myself on receiving from so respectable a number of them such strong assurances of their affection for my person, confidence in my integrity, and zeal to support me in my endeavours for promoting the welfare of our common country.



WASHINGTON'S ARMS.

So long as my conduct shall merit the approbation of the wise and the good I hope to hold the same place in your affections, which your friendly declarations induce me to believe I possess at present; and, amidst all the vicissitudes, that may await me in this mutable existence, I shall earnestly desire the continuation of an interest in your intercession at the throne of grace.

To the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church in the United States.

May, 1789.

I receive with great sensibility the testimonial given by the general assembly of the Presbyterian Church in the United

States of America, of the lively and unfeigned pleasure experienced by them on my appointment to the first office in the nation.

Although it will be my endeavour to avoid being elated by the too favourable opinion, which your kindness for me may have induced you to express of the importance of my former conduct and the effect of my future services, yet, conscious of the disinterestedness of my motives, it is not necessary for me to conceal the satisfaction I have felt upon finding that my compliance with the call of my country, and my dependence on the assistance of Heaven to support me in my arduous undertakings, have, so far as I can learn, met the universal approbation of my countrymen.

While I reiterate the professions of my dependence upon Heaven, as the source of all public and private blessings, I will observe, that the general prevalence of piety, philanthropy, honesty, industry, and economy seems, in the ordinary course of human affairs, particularly necessary for advancing and confirming the happiness of our country. While all men within our territories are protected in worshipping the Deity according to the dictates of their consciences, it is rationally to be expected from them in return, that they will all be emulous of evincing the sanctity of their professions by the innocence of their lives and the beneficence of their actions; for no man, who is profligate in his morals, or a bad member of the civil community, can possibly be a true Christian, or a credit to his own religious society.

I desire you to accept my acknowledgments for your laudable endeavours to render men sober, honest, and good citizens, and the obedient subjects of a lawful government, as well as for your prayers to Almighty God for his blessing on our common country, and the humble instrument, which he has been pleased to make use of in the administration of its government.

To the Bishops of the Methodist Episcopal Church in the United States.

May, 1789.

I return to you individually, and, through you, to your society collectively in the United States, my thanks for the demonstrations of affection and the expressions of joy, offered in their behalf, on my late appointment. It shall still be my endeavour to manifest, by overt acts, the purity of my inclinations for promoting the happiness of mankind, as well as the sincerity of my desires to contribute whatever may be in my power towards the preservation of the civil and religious liberties of the American people. In pursuing this line of conduct, I hope, by the assistance of Divine Providence, not altogether to disappoint the confidence which you have been pleased to repose in me.

It always affords me satisfaction, when I find a concurrence in sentiment and practice between all conscientious men in acknowledgments of homage to the great Governor of the Universe, and in professions of support to a just civil government. After mentioning that I trust the people of every denomination, who demean themselves as good citizens, will have occasion to be convinced that I shall always strive to prove a faithful and impartial patron of genuine, vital religion, I must assure you in particular that I take in the kindest part the promise you make of presenting your prayers at the throne of grace for me, and that I likewise implore the divine benediction on yourselves and your religious community.

To the General Committee, Representing the United Baptist Churches in Virginia.

May, 1789.

I request that you will accept my best acknowledgments for your congratulation on my appointment to the first office in the nation. The kind manner in which you mention my past conduct equally claims the expression of my gratitude.

After we had, by the smiles of Heaven on our exertions, obtained the object for which we contended, I retired, at the conclusion of the war, with an idea that my country could have no further occasion for my services, and with the intention of never entering again into public life; but, when the exigencies of my country seemed to require me once more to engage in public affairs, an honest conviction of duty

superseded my former resolution, and became my apology for deviating from the happy plan which I had adopted.

If I could have entertained the slightest apprehension that the constitution framed in the convention, where I had the honour to preside, might possibly endanger the religious rights of any ecclesiastical society, certainly I would never have placed my signature to it; and, if I could now conceive that the general government might ever be so administered as to render the liberty of conscience insecure, I beg you will be persuaded, that no one would be more zealous than myself to establish effectual barriers against the horrors of spiritual tyranny, and every species of religious persecution. For you doubtless remember, that I have often expressed my sentiments, that every man, conducting himself as a good citizen, and being accountable to God alone for his religious opinions, ought to be protected in worshipping the Deity according to the dictates of his own conscience.

While I recollect with satisfaction, that the religious society of which you are members have been, throughout America, uniformly and almost unanimously the firm friends to civil liberty, and the persevering promoters of our glorious revolution, I cannot hesitate to believe, that they will be the faithful supporters of a free, yet efficient general government. Under this pleasing expectation I rejoice to assure them, that they may rely on my best wishes and endeavours to advance their prosperity.

In the mean time be assured, gentlemen, that I entertain a proper sense of your fervent supplications to God for my temporal and eternal happiness.

To the Ministers and Elders of the German Reformed Congregations in the United States.

June, 1789.

I am happy in concurring with you in the sentiments of gratitude and piety towards Almighty God, which are expressed with such fervency of devotion in your address; and in believing that I shall always find in you, and the German Reformed Congregations in the United States, a conduct correspondent to such worthy and pious expressions

At the same time, I return you my thanks for the manifestation of your firm purpose to support in your persons a government founded in justice and equity, and for the promise, that it will be your constant study to impress the minds of the people intrusted to your care with a due sense of the necessity of uniting reverence to such a government, and obedience to its laws, with the duties and exercises of religion.

Be assured, gentlemen, it is by such conduct very much in the power of the virtuous members of the community to alleviate the burden of the important office which I have accepted, and to give me occasion to rejoice, in this world, for having followed therein the dictates of my conscience.

Be pleased, also, to accept my acknowledgments for the interest you so kindly take in the prosperity of my person, family, and administration. May your devotions before the throne of grace be prevalent in calling down the blessings of Heaven upon yourselves and your country.

To the Directors of the Society of the United Brethren for Propagating the Gospel Among the Heathen.

July, 1789.

I receive with satisfaction the congratulations of your society, and of the Brethren's congregations in the United States of America. For you may be persuaded, that the approbation and good wishes of such a peaceable and virtuous community cannot be indifferent to me.

You will also be pleased to accept my thanks for the treatise* you presented, and be assured of my patronage in your laudable undertakings.

In proportion as the general government of the United States shall acquire strength by duration, it is probable they may have it in their power to extend a salutary influence to the aborigines in the extremities of their territory. In the mean time, it will be a desirable thing, for the protection of the Union, to cooperate, as far as the circumstances may

* "An account of the manner in which the Protestant Church of the *Unitas Fratrum*, or United Brethren, preach the Gospel and carry on their mission among the heathen."

conveniently admit, with the disinterested endeavours of your society to civilize and christianize the savages of the wilderness.

Under these impressions, I pray Almighty God to have you always in his holy keeping.

To the Bishops, Clergy, and Laity of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the States of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina, in General Convention Assembled.

Aug. 19, 1789.

I sincerely thank you for your affectionate congratulations on my election to the chief magistracy of the United States.

After having received from my fellow-citizens in general the most liberal treatment, after having found them disposed to contemplate, in the most flattering point of view, the performance of my military services, and the manner of my retirement at the close of the war, I feel that I have a right to console myself in my present arduous undertakings with a hope that they will still be inclined to put the most favourable construction on the motives, which may influence me in my future public transactions.

The satisfaction arising from the indulgent opinion entertained by the American people of my conduct will, I trust, be some security for preventing me from doing any thing, which might justly incur the forfeiture of that opinion. And the consideration, that human happiness and moral duty are inseparably connected, will always continue to prompt me to promote the progress of the former by inculcating the practice of the latter.

On this occasion, it would ill become me to conceal the joy I have felt in perceiving the fraternal affection, which appears to increase every day among the friends of genuine religion. It affords edifying prospects, indeed, to see Christians of different denominations dwell together in more charity, and conduct themselves in respect to each other with a more Christian-like spirit, than ever they have done in any former age, or in any other nation.

I receive with the greater satisfaction your congratulations on the establishment of the new constitution of government, because I believe its mild yet efficient operations will tend to remove every remaining apprehension of those, with whose opinions it may not entirely coincide, as well as to confirm the hopes of its numerous friends; and because the moderation, patriotism, and wisdom of the present federal legislature seem to promise the restoration of order and our ancient virtues, the extension of genuine religion, and the consequent advancement of our respectability abroad, and of our substantial happiness at home.

I request, most reverend and respected gentlemen, that you will accept my cordial thanks for your devout supplications to the Supreme Ruler of the Universe in behalf of me. May you, and the people whom you represent, be the happy subjects of the divine benedictions both here and hereafter.

To the Synod of the Reformed Dutch Church in North America.

October, 1789.

I receive with a grateful heart your pious and affectionate address, and with truth declare to you that no circumstance of my life has affected me more sensibly, or produced more pleasing emotions, than the friendly congratulations, and strong assurances of support, which I have received from my fellow-citizens of all descriptions upon my election to the Presidency of these United States.

I fear, gentlemen, your goodness has led you to form too exalted an opinion of my virtues and merits. If such talents as I possess have been called into action by great events, and those events have terminated happily for our country, the glory should be ascribed to the manifest interposition of an overruling Providence. My military services have been abundantly recompensed by the flattering approbation of a grateful people; and if a faithful discharge of my civil duties can insure a like reward, I shall feel myself richly compensated for any personal sacrifice I may have made by engaging again in public life.

The citizens of the United States of America have given as signal a proof of their wisdom and virtue, in framing and adopting a constitution of government without bloodshed or the intervention of force, as they, upon a former occasion,

exhibited to the world, of their valour, fortitude, and perseverance; and it must be a pleasing circumstance to every friend of good order and social happiness to find that our new government is gaining strength and respectability among the citizens of this country, in proportion as its operations are known and its effects felt.

You, gentlemen, act the part of pious Christians and good citizens by your prayers and exertions to preserve that harmony and good will towards men, which must be the basis of every political establishment; and I readily join with you, that, "while just government protects all in their religious rights, true religion affords to government its surest support."

I am deeply impressed with your good wishes for my present and future happiness, and I beseech the Almighty to take you and yours under his special care.

To the Religious Society called Quakers, at their Yearly Meeting for Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Delaware, and the Western Part of Maryland and Virginia.

October, 1789.

I receive with pleasure your affectionate address, and thank you for the friendly sentiments and good wishes, which you express for the success of my administration and for my personal happiness.

We have reason to rejoice in the prospect that the present national government which, by the favour of Divine Providence, was formed by the common counsels and peaceably established with the common consent of the people, will prove a blessing to every denomination of them. To render it such, my best endeavours shall not be wanting.

Government being, among other purposes, instituted to protect the persons and consciences of men from oppression, it certainly is the duty of rulers, not only to abstain from it themselves, but, according to their stations, to prevent it in others.

The liberty enjoyed by the people of these States, of worshipping Almighty God agreeably to their consciences, is not only among the choicest of their *blessings*, but also of their *rights*. While men perform their social duties faithfully, they do all that society or the state can with propriety demand or expect; and remain responsible only to their Maker for the religion, or modes of faith, which they may prefer or profess.

Your principles and conduct are well known to me; and it is doing the people called Quakers no more than justice to say, that (except their declining to share with others the burthen of the common defence) there is no denomination among us who are more exemplary and useful citizens.

I assure you very explicitly that in my opinion the conscientious scruples of all men should be treated with great delicacy and tenderness; and it is my wish and desire that the laws may always be as extensively accommodated to them as a due regard to the protection and essential interests of the nation may justify and permit.

To the Roman Catholics in the United States.

December, 1789.

While I now receive with much satisfaction your congratulations on my being called by a unanimous vote to the first station in my country, I cannot but duly notice your politeness in offering an apology for the unavoidable delay. As that delay has given you an opportunity of realizing, instead of anticipating, the benefits of the general government, you will do me the justice to believe that your testimony to the increase of the public prosperity enhances the pleasure which I should otherwise have experienced from your affectionate address.

I feel that my conduct in war and in peace has met with more general approbation, than could reasonably have been expected; and I find myself disposed to consider that fortunate circumstance, in a great degree, resulting from the able support and extraordinary candour of my fellow-citizens of all denominations.

The prospect of national prosperity now before us is truly animating, and ought to excite the exertions of all good men to establish and secure the happiness of their country, in the permanent duration of its freedom and independence. America, under the smiles of Divine Providence, the protection of a good government, the cultivation of manners,

morals, and piety, can hardly fail of attaining an uncommon degree of eminence in literature, commerce, agriculture, improvements at home, and respectability abroad.

As mankind become more liberal, they will be more apt to allow that all those, who conduct themselves as worthy members of the community, are equally entitled to the protection of civil government. I hope ever to see America among the foremost nations in examples of justice and liberality. And I presume, that your fellow-citizens will not forget the patriotic part, which you took in the accomplishment of their revolution and the establishment of their government, or the important assistance, which they received from a nation in which the Roman Catholic religion is professed.

I thank you, gentlemen, for your kind concern for me. While my life and my health shall continue, in whatever situation I may be, it shall be my constant endeavour to justify the favourable sentiments you are pleased to express of my conduct. And may the members of your society in America, animated alone by the pure spirit of Christianity, and still conducting themselves as the faithful subjects of our free government, enjoy every temporal and spiritual felicity.

To the Hebrew Congregation of the City of Savannah.

May, 1790.

I thank you, with great sincerity, for your congratulations on my appointment to the office which I have the honour to hold by the unanimous choice of my fellow-citizens; and especially for the expressions, which you are pleased to use in testifying the confidence that is reposed in me by your congregation.

As the delay, which has naturally intervened between my election and your address, has afforded an opportunity for appreciating the merits of the federal government, and for communicating your sentiments of its administration, I have rather to express my satisfaction, than regret, at a circumstance, which demonstrates (upon experiment) your attachment to the former, as well as approbation of the latter.

I rejoice, that a spirit of liberality and philanthropy is much more prevalent than it formerly was among the enlightened nations of the earth, and that your brethren will benefit thereby in proportion as it shall become still more extensive. Happily, the people of the United States of America have, in many instances, exhibited examples worthy of imitation, the salutary influence of which will doubtless extend much farther, if, gratefully enjoying those blessings of peace, which, under the favour of Heaven, have been obtained by fortitude in war, they shall conduct themselves with reverence to the Deity, and charity towards their fellow-creatures.

May the same wonder-working Deity, who long since delivered the Hebrews from their Egyptian oppressors, and planted them in the promised land, whose providential agency has lately been conspicuous in establishing these United States as an independent nation, still continue to water them with the dews of Heaven, and to make the inhabitants of every denomination participate in the temporal and spiritual blessings of that people whose God is Jehovah.

To the Convention of the Universal Church Lately Assembled in Philadelphia.

1790.

I thank you cordially for the congratulations, which you offer on my appointment to the office I have the honour to hold in the government of the United States.

It gives me the most sensible pleasure to find, that, in our nation, however different are the sentiments of citizens on religious doctrines, they generally concur in one thing; for their political professions and practices are almost universally friendly to the order and happiness of our civil institutions. I am also happy in finding this disposition particularly evinced by your society. It is, moreover, my earnest desire that all the members of every association or community, throughout the United States, may make such use of the auspicious years of peace, liberty, and free inquiry, with which they are now favoured, as they

shall hereafter find occasion to rejoice for having done.

With great satisfaction I embrace this opportunity to express my acknowledgments for the interest my affectionate fellow-citizens have taken in my recovery from a late dangerous indisposition; and I assure you, gentlemen, that, in mentioning my obligations for the effusions of your benevolent wishes in my behalf, I feel animated with new zeal, that my conduct may ever be worthy of your favourable opinion, as well as such as shall, in every respect, best comport with the character of an intelligent and accountable being.

TRIUMPHAL ARCH ERECTED NEAR PHILADELPHIA, FOR THE RECEPTION OF GENERAL WASHINGTON, APRIL 20, 1789.

To the Congregational Church and Society at Medway, Formerly St. John's Parish, in the State of Georgia.

May, 1791.

I learn, with gratitude proportioned to the occasion, your attachment to my person, and the pleasure you express on my election to the Presidency of the United States. Your sentiments on the happy influence of our equal government impress me with the most sensible satisfaction. They vindicate the great interests of humanity; they reflect honour on the liberal minds that entertain them; and they promise the continuance and improvement of that tranquillity, which is essential to the welfare of nations and the happiness of men.

You overrate my best exertions when you ascribe to them the blessings which our country so eminently enjoys. From the gallantry and fortitude of her citizens, under the auspices of Heaven, America has derived her independence. To their industry, and the natural advantages of the country, she is indebted for her prosperous situation. From their virtue she may expect long to share the protection of a free and equal government, which their wisdom has established, and which experience justifies, as admirably adapted to our social wants and individual felicity.

Continue, my fellow-citizens, to cultivate the peace and harmony which now subsist between you and your Indian neighbours. The happy consequence is immediate. The reflection, which arises on justice and benevolence, will be lastingly grateful. A knowledge of your happiness will lighten the cares of my station, and be among the most pleasing of their rewards.

To the Members of the New Church in Baltimore.

January, 1793.

It has ever been my pride to merit the approbation of my fellow-citizens, by a faithful and honest discharge of the duties annexed to those stations, in which they have been pleased to place

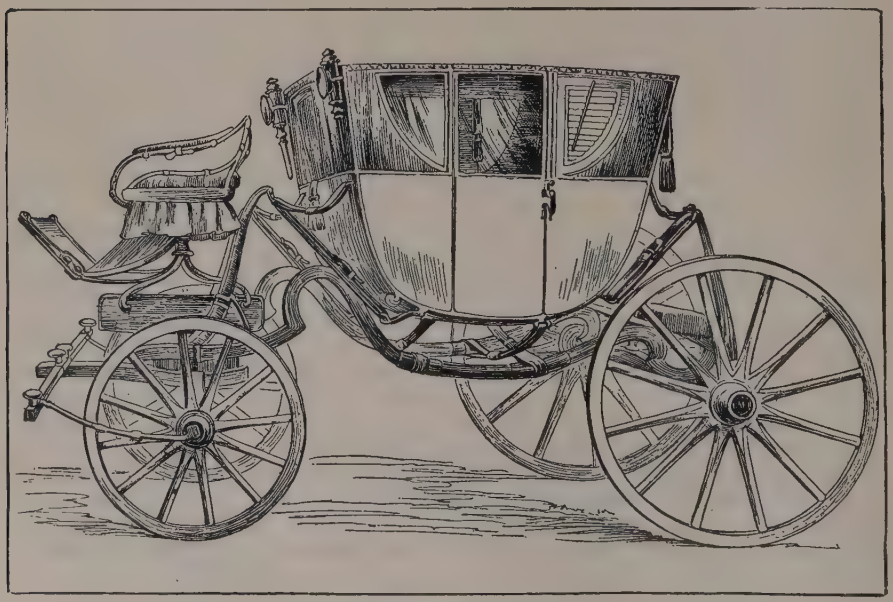
me; and the dearest rewards of my services have been those testimonies of esteem and confidence with which they have honoured me. But to the manifest interposition of an overruling Providence, and to the patriotic exertions of United America, are to be ascribed those events which have given us a respectable rank among the nations of the earth.

We have abundant reason to rejoice that, in this land, the light of truth and reason has triumphed over the power of bigotry and superstition, and that every person may here worship God according to the dictates of his own heart. In this enlightened age, and in this land of equal liberty, it is our boast that a man's religious tenets will not forfeit the protection of the laws, nor deprive him of the right of attaining and holding the highest offices that are known in the United States.

Your prayers for my present and future felicity are received with gratitude; and I sincerely wish, gentlemen, that you may in your social and individual capacities taste those blessings which a gracious God bestows upon the righteous.

Washington's Inaugurals.—The first inauguration took place on April 30, 1789. At nine o'clock in the morning there were religious services in all the churches, and prayers put up for the blessing of Heaven on the new government. At twelve o'clock the city troops paraded before Washington's door, and soon after the committees of Congress and heads of departments came in their carriages. At half-past twelve the procession moved forward preceded by the troops; next came the committees and heads of departments in their carriages; then Washington in a coach of state, his aide-de-camp Colonel Humphreys, and his secretary Mr. Lear in his own carriage. The foreign ministers and a long train of citizens brought up the rear.

About 200 yards before reaching the hall, Washington and his suite alighted from their carriages, and passed through the troops, who were drawn up on each side, into the hall and Senate chamber, where the Vice-President, the Senate, and House of Representatives were assembled. The Vice-President, John Adams, recently inaugurated, advanced and conducted



WASHINGTON'S COACH.

FEDERAL HALL, NEW YORK, WHERE WASHINGTON WAS INAUGURATED.

Washington to a chair of state at the upper end of the room. A solemn silence prevailed when the Vice-President rose and informed him that all things were prepared for him to take the oath of office required by the Constitution.

The oath was to be administered by the chancellor of the State of New York in a balcony in front of the Senate chamber, and in full view of an immense multitude occupying the street, the windows, and even roofs of the adjacent houses. The balcony formed a kind of open recess, with lofty columns supporting the roof. In the centre was a table with a covering of crimson velvet, upon which lay a superbly bound Bible on a crimson velvet cushion. This was all the paraphernalia that had been provided for this august scene.

All eyes were fixed upon the balcony, when, at the appointed hour, Washington made his appearance, accompanied by various public functionaries, and members of the Senate and House of Representatives. He was clad in a full suit of dark-brown cloth, of American manufacture, with a steel-hilted dress-sword, white silk stockings and silver shoe-buckles. His hair was dressed and powdered in the fashion of the day, and worn in a bag and solitaire.

His entrance on the balcony was hailed by universal shouts. He was evidently

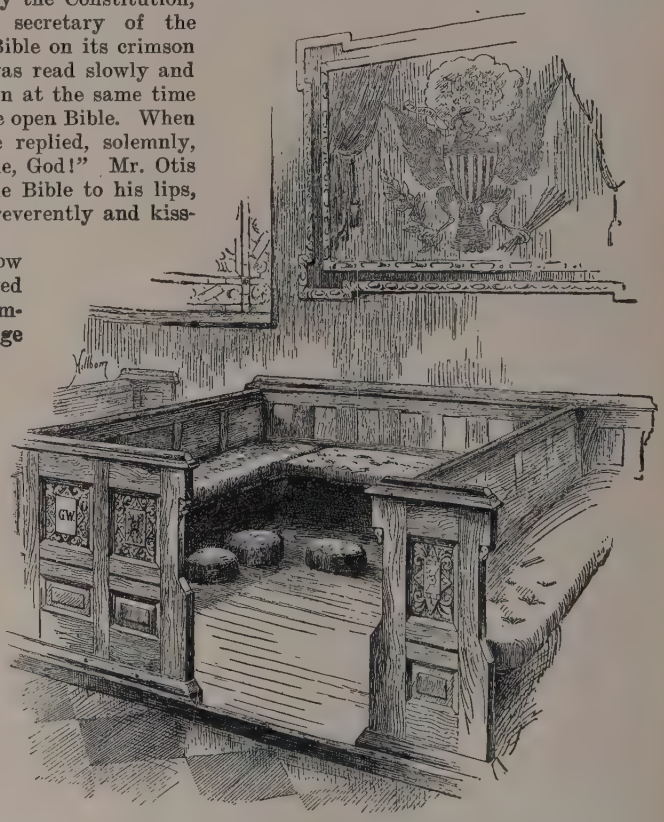
moved by this demonstration of public affection. Advancing to the front of the balcony he laid his hand upon his heart, bowed several times, and then retreated to an arm-chair near the table. The populace appeared to understand that the scene had overcome him, and were hushed at once into profound silence.

After a few moments Washington rose and again came forward. John Adams, the Vice-President, stood on his right; on his left the chancellor of the State, Robert R. Livingston; somewhat in the rear were Roger Sherman, Alexander Hamilton, Generals Knox, St. Clair, the Baron Steuben, and others.

The chancellor advanced to administer the oath prescribed by the Constitution, and Mr. Otis, the secretary of the Senate, held up the Bible on its crimson cushion. The oath was read slowly and distinctly, Washington at the same time laying his hand on the open Bible. When it was concluded, he replied, solemnly, "I swear—so help me, God!" Mr. Otis would have raised the Bible to his lips, but he bowed down reverently and kissed it.

The chancellor now stepped forward, waved his hand, and exclaimed, "Long live George Washington, President of the United States!" At this moment a flag was displayed on the cupola of the hall; on which signal there was a general discharge of artillery on the battery. All the bells in the city rang out a joyful peal, and the multitude rent the air with acclamations.

Washington again bowed to the people and returned into the Senate chamber, where he delivered to both Houses of Congress his inaugural address, characterized by his usual modesty, moderation, and good sense, but uttered with a voice deep, slightly tremulous, and so low as to demand close attention in the listeners. He then proceeded with the assemblage to St. Paul's church, where prayers were read by Dr. Prevost, Bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church in New York, who had been appointed by the Senate one of the chaplains of Congress. So closed the ceremonies of the inauguration. — *Irving's Life of Washington.*



PEW OCCUPIED BY WASHINGTON AT ST. PAUL'S, NEW YORK.

INAUGURAL SPEECH TO BOTH HOUSES OF CONGRESS APRIL 30, 1789.

Fellow-citizens of the Senate and House of Representativ.,—Among the vicissitudes incident to life, no event could have filled me with greater anxieties, than that of which the notification was trans-

THE INAUGURATION OF WASHINGTON

CELEBRATION IN NEW YORK ON THE NIGHT OF WASHINGTON'S INAUGURATION.

mitted by your order, and received on the 14th day of the present month. On the one hand, I was summoned by my country, whose voice I can never hear but with veneration and love, from a retreat which I had chosen with the fondest predilection, and, in my flattering hopes, with an immutable decision, as the asylum of my declining years; a retreat which was rendered every day more necessary as well as more dear to me, by the addition of habit to inclination, and of frequent interruptions in my health to the gradual waste committed on it by time. On the other hand, the magnitude and difficulty of the trust, to which the voice of my country called me, being sufficient to awaken in the wisest and most experienced of her citizens a distrustful scrutiny into his qualifications, could not but overwhelm with despondence one who, inheriting inferior endowments from nature, and unpractised in the duties of civil administration, ought to be peculiarly conscious of his own deficiencies. In this conflict of emotions, all I dare aver is, that it has been my faithful study to collect my duty from a just appreciation of every circumstance by which it might be affected. All I dare hope is, that, if in executing this task, I have been too much swayed by a grateful remembrance of former instances, or by an affectionate sensibility to this transcendent proof of the confidence of my fellow-citizens; and have thence too little consulted my incapacity as well as disinclination for the weighty and untried cares before me; my error will be palliated by the motives which misled me, and its consequences be judged by my country with some share of the partiality in which they originated.

Such being the impressions under which I have, in obedience to the public summons, repaired to the present station, it would be peculiarly improper to omit, in this first official act, my fervent supplications to that Almighty Being, who rules over the universe, who presides in the councils of nations, and whose providential aids can supply every human defect, that his benediction may consecrate to the liberties and happiness of the people of the United States a government instituted by themselves for these essential purposes, and may enable every instrument employed in its administration to execute with success the functions allotted to his charge. In tendering this homage to the great Author of every public and private good, I assure myself that it expresses your sentiments not less than my own; nor those of my fellow-citizens at large, less than either. No people can be bound to acknowledge and adore the invisible hand, which conducts the affairs of men, more than the people of the United States. Every step, by which they have advanced to the character of an independent nation, seems to have been distinguished by some token of providential agency. And, in the important revolution just accomplished in the system of their united government, the tranquil deliberations and voluntary consent of so many distinct communities, from which the event has resulted, cannot be compared with the means by which most governments have been established, without some return of pious gratitude along with an humble anticipation of the future blessings which the past seems to presage. These reflections, arising out of the present crisis, have forced themselves too strongly on my mind to be suppressed. You will join with me, I trust, in thinking that there are none, under the influence of which the proceedings of a new and free government can more auspiciously commence.

By the article establishing the executive department, it is made the duty of the President "to recommend to your consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient." The circumstances, under which I now meet you, will acquit me from entering into that subject further than to refer you to the great constitutional charter under which we are assembled; and which, in defining your powers, designates the objects to which your attention is to be given. It will be more consistent with those circumstances, and far more congenial with the feelings which actuate me, to substitute, in place of a recommendation of particular measures, the tribute that is due to the talents, the rectitude, and the patriotism, which adorn the characters selected to devise and adopt them. In these honourable qualifications I behold the surest pledges, that as, on one side, no local prejudices or attachments, no separate views or party animosities, will misdirect the comprehensive and equal eye, which ought to watch over this great assemblage of communities and interests; so, on another, that the foundations of our national policy will be laid in the pure and immutable principles of private morality, and the pre-eminence of a free government be exemplified by all the attributes, which can win the affections of its citizens, and command the respect of the world.

I dwell on this prospect with every satisfaction which an ardent love for my country can inspire; since there is no truth more thoroughly established than that there exists in the economy and course of nature an indissoluble union between virtue and happiness, between duty and advantage, between the genuine maxims of an honest and magnanimous policy, and the solid rewards of public prosperity and felicity; since we ought to be no less persuaded that the propitious smiles of Heaven can never be expected on a nation that disregards the eternal rules of order and right, which Heaven itself has ordained; and since the preservation of the sacred fire of liberty, and the destiny of the republican model of government, are justly considered as *deeply*, perhaps as *finally* staked on the experiment intrusted to the hands of the American people.

Besides the ordinary objects submitted to your care, it will remain with your judgment to decide how far an exercise of the occasional power delegated by the fifth article of the Constitution is rendered expedient at the present juncture by the nature of objections which have been urged against the system, or by the degree of inquietude which has given birth

to them. Instead of undertaking particular recommendations on this subject, in which I could be guided by no lights derived from official opportunities, I shall again give way to my entire confidence in your discernment and pursuit of the public good; for I assure myself that, whilst you carefully avoid every alteration which might endanger the benefits of a united and effective government, or which ought to await the future lessons of experience; a reverence for the characteristic rights of freemen, and a regard for the public harmony, will sufficiently influence your deliberations on the question, how far the former can be more impregnably fortified, or the latter be safely and advantageously promoted.

To the preceding observations I have one to add, which will be most properly addressed to the House of Representatives. It concerns myself, and will therefore be as brief as possible. When I was first honored with a call into the service of my country, then on the eve of an arduous struggle for its liberties, the light in which I contemplated my duty required that I should renounce every pecuniary compensation. From this resolution I have in no instance departed. And being still under the impressions which produced it, I must decline as inapplicable to myself any share in the personal emoluments, which may be indispensably included in a permanent provision for the executive department; and must accordingly pray that the pecuniary estimates for the station in which I am placed may, during my continuance in it, be limited to such actual expenditures as the public good may be thought to require.

Having thus imparted to you my sentiments, as they have been awakened by the occasion which brings us together, I shall take my present leave; but not without resorting once more to the benign Parent of the human race, in humble supplication, that, since he has been pleased to favour the American people with opportunities for deliberating in perfect tranquillity, and dispositions for deciding with unparalleled unanimity on a form of government for the security of their union and the advancement of their happiness; so his divine blessing may be equally *conspicuous* in the enlarged views, the temperate consultations, and the wise measures on which the success of this government must depend.

REPLY TO THE ANSWER OF THE SENATE.

Gentlemen,—I thank you for your address, in which the most affectionate sentiments are expressed in the most obliging terms. The coincidence of circumstances, which led to this auspicious crisis, the confidence reposed in me by my fellow-citizens, and the assistance I may expect from counsels, which will be dictated by an enlarged and liberal policy, seem to presage a more prosperous issue to my administration than a diffidence of my abilities had taught me to anticipate. I now feel myself inexpressibly happy in a belief that Heaven, which has done so much for our infant nation, will not withdraw its providential influence before our political felicity shall have been completed; and in a conviction that the Senate will at all times co-operate in every measure which may tend to promote the welfare of this confederated republic.

Thus supported by a firm trust in the great Arbiter of the universe, aided by the collected wisdom of the Union, and imploring the divine benediction on our joint exertions in the service of our country, I readily engage with you in the arduous but pleasing task of attempting to make a nation happy.

REPLY TO THE ANSWER OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES.

Gentlemen, — Your very affectionate address produces emotions which I know not how to express. I feel that my past endeavours in the service of my country are far overpaid by its goodness; and I fear much that my future ones may not fulfil your kind anticipation. All that I can promise is, that they will be invariably directed by an honest and an ardent zeal. Of this resource my heart assures me. For all beyond, I rely on the wisdom and patriotism of those with whom I am to co-operate, and a continuance of the blessings of Heaven on our beloved country.

Washington took the oath of office for his second term on March 4, 1793. The address which is here printed as his second

inaugural is the address delivered upon the assembling of Congress in December following. In the time of Washington's administration, it was customary for the President, at the opening of each session of Congress, to meet the two Houses in person and deliver a written speech. Each House returned an answer to this speech some days afterwards, by a committee, who waited on him for the purpose, and he at the same time made a brief reply. All of Washington's speeches to Congress, and all his replies to the answers of the two Houses, are given in vol. xii. of Sparks's edition of the *Writings of Washington.*

SPEECH TO BOTH HOUSES OF CONGRESS, DEC. 3, 1793.

Fellow-citizens of the Senate and House of Representatives,—Since the commencement of the term, for which I have been again called into office, no fit occasion has arisen for expressing to my fellow-citizens at large, the deep and respectful sense, which I feel, of the renewed testimony of public approbation. While, on the one hand, it awakened my gratitude for all those instances of affectionate partiality, with which I have been honoured by my country; on the other, it could not prevent an earnest wish for that retirement, from which no private consideration should ever have torn me. But influenced by the belief that my conduct would be estimated according to its real motives, and that the people, and the authorities derived from them, would support exertions having nothing personal for their object, I have obeyed the suffrage, which commanded me to resume the executive power; and I humbly implore that Being, on whose will the fate of nations depends, to crown with success our mutual endeavours for the general happiness.

As soon as the war in Europe had embraced those powers, with whom the United States have the most extensive relations, there was reason to apprehend, that our intercourse with them might be interrupted, and our disposition for peace drawn into question, by the suspicions too often entertained by belligerent nations. It seemed, therefore, to be my duty to admonish our citizens of the consequences of a contraband trade, and of hostile acts to any of the parties; and to obtain, by a declaration of the existing legal state of things, an easier admission of our right to the immunities belonging to our situation. Under these impressions, the Proclamation, which will be laid before you, was issued.

In this posture of affairs, both new and delicate, I resolved to adopt general rules, which should conform to the treaties and assert the privileges of the United States. These were reduced into a system, which will be communicated to you. Although I have not thought myself at liberty to forbid the sale of the prizes, permitted by our treaty of commerce with France to be brought into our ports, I have not refused to cause them to be restored, when they were taken within the protection of our territory, or by vessels commissioned or equipped in a warlike form within the limits of the United States.

It rests with the wisdom of Congress to correct, improve, or enforce this plan of procedure; and it will probably be found expedient to extend the legal code, and the jurisdiction of the courts of the United States, to many cases which, though dependent on principles already recognized, demand some further provisions.

Where individuals shall within the United States array themselves in hostility against any of the powers at war; or enter upon military expeditions or enterprises within the jurisdiction of the United States; or usurp and exercise judicial authority within the United States; or where the penalties on violations of the law of nations may have been indistinctly marked, or are inadequate; these offences cannot receive too early and close an attention, and require prompt and decisive remedies.

Whatsoever those remedies may be, they will be well administered by the judiciary, who possess a long-established course of investigation, effectual process, and officers in the habit of executing it. In like manner, as several of the courts have *doubted*, under particular circumstances, their power to liberate the vessels of a nation at peace, and even of a citizen of the United States, although seized under a false colour of being hostile property; and have *denied* their power to liberate certain captures within the protection of

our territory; it would seem proper to regulate their jurisdiction in these points. But if the executive is to be the resort in either of the two last-mentioned cases, it is hoped that he will be authorized by law to have facts ascertained by the courts, when, for his own information, he shall request it.

I cannot recommend to your notice measures for the fulfilment of *our* duties to the rest of the world, without again pressing upon you the necessity of placing ourselves in a condition of complete defence, and of exacting from *them* the fulfilment of *their* duties towards *us*. The United States ought not to indulge a persuasion, that, contrary to the order of human events, they will for ever keep at a distance those painful appeals to arms, with which the history of every other nation abounds. There is a rank due to the United States among nations, which will be withheld, if not absolutely lost, by the reputation of weakness. If we desire to avoid insult, we must be able to repel it; if we desire to secure peace, one of the most powerful instruments of our rising prosperity, it must be known that we are at all times ready for war.

The documents, which will be presented to you, will show the amount and kinds of arms and military stores now in our magazines and arsenals; and yet an addition even to these supplies cannot with prudence be neglected, as it would leave nothing to the uncertainty of procuring a warlike apparatus in the moment of public danger. Nor can such arrangements, with such objects, be exposed to the censure or jealousy of the warmest friends of republican government. They are incapable of abuse in the hands of the militia, who ought to possess a pride in being the depository of the force of the republic, and may be trained to a degree of energy, equal to every military exigency of the United States. But it is an inquiry, which cannot be too solemnly pursued, whether the act "more effectually to provide for the national defence by establishing a uniform militia throughout the United States," has organized them so as to produce their full effect; whether your own experience in the several States has not detected some imperfections in the scheme; and whether a material feature, in an improvement of it, ought not to be to afford an opportunity for the study of those branches of the military art, which can scarcely ever be attained by practice alone.

The connexion of the United States with Europe has become extremely interesting. The occurrences, which relate to it, and have passed under the knowledge of the executive, will be exhibited to Congress in a subsequent communication.

When we contemplate the war on our frontiers, it may be truly affirmed that every reasonable effort has been made to adjust the causes of dissension with the Indians north of the Ohio. The instructions given to the commissioners evince a moderation and equity proceeding from a sincere love of peace, and a liberality having no restriction but the essential interests and dignity of the United States. The attempt, however, of an amicable negotiation having been frustrated, the troops have marched to act offensively. Although the proposed treaty did not arrest the progress of military preparation, it is doubtful how far the advance of the season, before good faith justified active movements, may retard them, during the remainder of the year. From the papers and intelligence, which relate to this important subject, you will determine, whether the deficiency in the number of troops, granted by law, shall be compensated by succours of militia; or additional encouragements shall be proposed to recruits. An anxiety has been also demonstrated by the executive for peace with the Creeks and the Cherokees. The former have been relieved with corn and with clothing, and offensive measures against them prohibited, during the recess of Congress. To satisfy the complaints of the latter, prosecutions have been instituted for the violences committed upon them. But the papers, which will be delivered to you, disclose the critical footing on which we stand in regard to both those tribes; and it is with Congress to pronounce what shall be done.

After they shall have provided for the present emergency, it will merit their most serious labours, to render tranquillity with the savages permanent by creating ties of interest. Next to a

rigorous execution of justice on the violators of peace, the establishment of commerce with the Indian nations on behalf of the United States is most likely to conciliate their attachment. But it ought to be conducted without fraud, without extortion, with constant and plentiful supplies, with a ready market for the commodities of the Indians, and a stated price for what they give in payment, and receive in exchange. Individuals will not pursue such a traffic unless they be allured by the hope of profit; but it will be enough for the United States to be reimbursed only. Should this recommendation accord with the opinion of Congress, they will recollect that it cannot be accomplished by any means yet in the hands of the executive.

Gentlemen of the House o Representatives,—The commissioners, harged with the settlement of accounts between the United and individual States, concluded their important functions within the time limited by law; and the balances, struck in their report, which will be laid before Congress, have been placed on the books of the treasury.

On the first day of June last, an instalment of one million of florins became payable on the loans of the United States in Holland. This was adjusted by a prolongation of the period of reimbursement, in the nature of a new loan, at interest at five per cent. for the term of ten years; and the expenses of this operation were a commission of three per cent.

The first instalment of the loan of two millions of dollars from the bank of the United States has been paid, as was directed by law. For the second, it is necessary that provision should be made.

No pecuniary consideration is more urgent than the regular redemption and discharge of the public debt; on none can delay be more injurious, or an economy ot time more valuable.

The productiveness of the public revenues hitherto has continued to equal the anticipations which were formed of it; but it is not expected to prove commensurate with all the objects which have been suggested. Some auxiliary provisions will, therefore, it is presumed, be requisite; and it is hoped that these may be made, consistently with a due regard to the convenience of our citizens, who cannot but be sensible of the true wisdom of encountering a small present addition to their contributions, to obviate a future accumulation of burdens.

But here I cannot forbear to recommend a repeal of the tax on the transportation of public prints. There is no resource so firm for the government of the United States, as the affections of the people, guided by an enlightened policy; and to this primary good, nothing can conduce more than a faithful representation of public proceedings, diffused without restraint throughout the United States.

An estimate of the appropriations necessary for the current service of the ensuing year, and a statement of a purchase of arms and military stores made during the recess, will be presented to Congress.

Gentlemen of the Senate and House of Representatives,—The several subjects, to which I have now referred, open a wide range to your deliberations, and involve some of the choicest interests of our common country. Permit me to bring to your remembrance the magnitude of your task. Without an unprejudiced coolness, the welfare of the government may be hazarded; without harmony, as far as consists with freedom of sentiment, its dignity may be lost. But as the legislative proceedings of the United States will never, I trust, be reproached for the want of temper or candour; so shall not the public happiness languish from the want of my strenuous and warmest co-operations.

Washington's Legacy. — Washington's circular letter addressed to the governors of all the States on disbanding the army was felt by him to be so important that, supposing himself at the time to be finally retiring from public life, he spoke of it as his legacy. The feelings with which it was written, as well as its own contents and character, naturally prompt a comparison of it with the farewell address of 1796. The occasion of the letter was a much more critical occasion than that of the farewell address. It was the time, as Washington well said, of the "political probation" of the American people. "This is the moment," he said,

"when the eyes of the whole world are turned upon them; this is the moment to establish or ruin their national character forever. . . . With this conviction of the importance of the present crisis, silence in me would be a crime." He then proceeds to the discussion of those things which he considered essential to the well-being and to the existence of the United States as an independent power. The effect of the letter upon the country, in the disordered condition of the time, was important. The legislatures that were then in session passed resolves in honor of the commander-in-chief; and the governors of the States wrote letters expressing the public gratitude for his great services.

For the conditions under which this address appeared, see Irving's *Life of Washington*, iv., 426. For an account of the discontents in the army just previous, which for a time threatened such serious dangers, see Irving, iv., 406; Marshall, iv., 585; and Sparks, viii., appendix xii., on *The Newburg Addresses*. See in this general connection Washington's letters to the president of Congress, March 19, and April 18, 1783; to Benjamin Harrison, governor of Virginia, March 18, 1783; to Lafayette, April 5, 1783, and his farewell address to the armies, Nov. 2, 1783 (Sparks, viii., 396, 403, 411, 421, 491). Washington's deep sense of the obligations of the country to the officers and soldiers of the army, which finds such strong expression in this circular letter, may be further studied in *The Life, Journal, and Correspondence of Rev. Manasseh Cutler*, vol. i., chap. iv.; in Cone's *Life of Gen. Rufus Putnam;* and in the *St. Clair Papers*.

The following is the text of the address:

HEADQUARTERS, NEWBURG,

June 8, 1783.

SIR,—The great object, for which I had the honor to hold an appointment in the service of my country, being accomplished, I am now preparing to resign it into the hands of Congress, and to return to that domestic retirement which, it is well known, I left with the greatest reluctance; a retirement for which I have never ceased to sigh, through a long and painful absence, and in which (remote from the noise and trouble of the world) I meditate to pass the remainder of life, in a state of undisturbed repose. But before I carry this resolution into effect, I think it a duty incumbent on me to make this my last official communication; to congratulate you on the glorious events which Heaven has been pleased to produce in our favour; to offer my sentiments respecting some important subjects, which appear to me to be intimately connected with the tranquillity of the United States; to take my leave of your Excellency as a public character; and to give my final blessing to that country in whose service I have spent the prime of my life, for whose sake I have consumed so many anxious days and watchful nights, and whose happiness, being extremely dear to me, will always constitute no inconsiderable part of my own.

Impressed with the liveliest sensibility on this pleasing occasion, I will claim the indulgence of dilating the more copiously on the subjects of our mutual felicitation. When we consider the magnitude of the prize we contended for, the doubtful nature of the contest, and the favourable manner in which it has terminated, we shall find the greatest possible reason for gratitude and rejoicing. This is a theme that will afford infinite delight to every benevolent and liberal mind, whether the event in contemplation be considered as the source of present enjoyment or the parent of future happiness; and we shall have equal occasion to felicitate ourselves on the lot which Providence has assigned us, whether we view it in a natural, a political, or moral point of light.

The citizens of America, placed in the most enviable condition, as the sole lords and proprietors of a vast tract of continent, comprehending all the various soils and climates of the world, and abounding with all the necessaries and conveniences of life, are now, by the late satisfactory pacification, acknowledged to be possessed of absolute freedom and independency. They are, from this period, to be considered as the actors on a most conspicuous theatre, which seems to be peculiarly designated by Providence for the display of human greatness and felicity. Here they are not only surrounded with everything which can contribute to the com-

pletion of private and domestic enjoyment; but Heaven has crowned all its other blessings, by giving a fairer opportunity for political happiness than any other nation has ever been favoured with. Nothing can illustrate these observations more forcibly than a recollection of the happy conjuncture of times and circumstances, under which our republic assumed its rank among the nations. The foundation of our empire was not laid in the gloomy age of ignorance and superstition; but at an epocha when the rights of mankind were better understood and more clearly defined than at any former period. The researches of the human mind after social happiness have been carried to a great extent; the treasures of knowledge, acquired by the labours of philosophers, sages, and legislators, through a long succession of years, are laid open for our use, and their collected wisdom may be happily applied in the establishment of our forms of government. The free cultivation of letters, the unbounded extension of commerce, the progressive refinement of manners, the growing liberality of sentiment, and, above all, the pure and benign light of Revelation, have had a meliorating influence on mankind and increased the blessings of society. At this auspicious period the United States came into existence as a nation; and, if their citizens should not be completely free and happy, the fault will be entirely their own.

Such is our situation, and such are our prospects; but, notwithstanding the cup of blessing is thus reached out to us; notwithstanding happiness is ours, if we have a disposition to seize the occasion and make it our own; yet it appears to me there is an option still left to the United States of America, that it is in their choice, and depends upon their conduct, whether they will be respectable and prosperous, or contemptible and miserable, as a nation. This is the time of their political probation; this is the moment when the eyes of the whole world are turned upon them; this is the moment to establish or ruin their national character for ever; this is the favourable moment to give such a tone to our federal government, as will enable it to answer the ends of its institution, or this may be the ill-fated moment for relaxing the powers of the Union, annihilating the cement of the confederation, and exposing us to become the sport of European politics, which may play one State against another, to prevent their growing importance, and to serve their own interested purposes. For, according to the system of policy the States shall adopt at this moment, they will stand or fall; and by their confirmation or lapse it is yet to be decided, whether the revolution must ultimately be considered as a blessing or a curse; a blessing or a curse, not to the present age alone, for with our fate will the destiny of unborn millions be involved.

With this conviction of the importance of the present crisis, silence in me would be a crime. I will therefore speak to your Excellency the language of freedom and of sincerity without disguise. I am aware, however, that those who differ from me in political sentiment may perhaps remark that I am stepping out of the proper line of my duty, and may possibly ascribe to arrogance or ostentation what I know is alone the result of the purest intention. But the rectitude of my own heart, which disdains such unworthy motives; the part I have hitherto acted in life; the determination I have formed, of not taking any share in public business hereafter; the ardent desire I feel, and shall continue to manifest, of quietly enjoying, in private life, after all the toils of war, the benefits of a wise and liberal government, will, I flatter myself, sooner or later convince my countrymen that I could have no sinister views in delivering, with so little reserve, the opinions contained in this address.

There are four things which, I humbly conceive, are essential to the well-being, I may even venture to say, to the existence of the United States, as an independent power.

First. An indissoluble union of the States under one federal head.

Second. A sacred regard to public justice.

Third. The adoption of a proper peace establishment; and,

Fourth. The prevalence of that pacific and friendly disposition among the people of the United States which will induce them to forget their local prejudices and

policies; to make those mutual concessions, which are requisite to the general prosperity; and, in some instances, to sacrifice their individual advantages to the interest of the community.

These are the pillars on which the glorious fabric of our independency and national character must be supported. Liberty is the basis; and whoever would dare to sap the foundation, or overturn the structure, under whatever specious pretext he may attempt it, will merit the bitterest execration and the severest punishment which can be inflicted by his injured country.

On the three first articles I will make a few observations, leaving the last to the good sense and serious consideration of those immediately concerned.

Under the first head, although it may not be necessary or proper for me, in this place, to enter into a particular disquisition on the principles of the Union, and to take up the great question which has been frequently agitated, whether it be expedient and requisite for the States to delegate a larger proportion of power to Congress, or not; yet it will be a part of my duty, and that of every true patriot, to assert without reserve, and to insist upon, the following positions. That, unless the States will suffer Congress to exercise those prerogatives they are undoubtedly invested with by the Constitution, every thing must very rapidly tend to anarchy and confusion. That it is indispensable to the happiness of the individual States that there should be lodged somewhere a supreme power to regulate and govern the general concerns of the confederated republic, without which the Union cannot be of long duration. That there must be a faithful and pointed compliance, on the part of every State, with the late proposals and demands of Congress, or the most fatal consequences will ensue. That whatever measures have a tendency to dissolve the Union, or contribute to violate or lessen the sovereign authority, ought to be considered as hostile to the liberty and independency of America, and the authors of them treated accordingly. And lastly, that unless we can be enabled, by the concurrence of the States, to participate of the fruits of the revolution, and enjoy the essential benefits of civil society, under a form of government so free and uncorrupted, so happily guarded against the danger of oppression, as has been devised and adopted by the Articles of Confederation, it will be a subject of regret that so much blood and treasure have been lavished for no purpose, that so many sufferings have been encountered without a compensation, and that so many sacrifices have been made in vain.

Many other considerations might here be adduced to prove that, without an entire conformity to the spirit of the Union, we cannot exist as an independent power. It will be sufficient for my purpose to mention but one or two, which seem to me of the greatest importance. It is only in our united character, as an empire, that our independence is acknowledged, that our power can be regarded, or our credit supported among foreign nations. The treaties of the European powers with the United States of America will have no validity on a dissolution of the Union. We shall be left nearly in a state of nature; or we may find, by our own unhappy experience, that there is a natural and necessary progression from the extreme of anarchy to the extreme of tyranny, and that arbitrary power is most easily established on the ruins of liberty abused to licentiousness.

As to the second article, which respects the performance of public justice, Congress have, in their late address to the United States, almost exhausted the subject; they have explained their ideas so fully, and have enforced the obligations the States are under, to render complete justice to all the public creditors, with so much dignity and energy that, in my opinion, no real friend of the honour and independency of America can hesitate a single moment, respecting the propriety of complying with the just and honourable measures proposed. If their arguments do not produce conviction, I know of nothing that will have greater influence; especially when we recollect that the system referred to, being the result of the collected wisdom of the continent, must be esteemed, if not perfect, certainly the least objectionable of any that could be devised: and that, if it shall not be carried into immediate execution, a national bank-

ruptcy, with all its deplorable consequences, will take place, before any different plan can possibly be proposed and adopted. So pressing are the present circumstances, and such is the alternative now offered to the States.

The ability of the country to discharge the debts, which have been incurred in its defence, is not to be doubted; and inclination, I flatter myself, will not be wanting. The path of our duty is plain before us; honesty will be found, on every experiment, to be the best and only true policy. Let us then, as a nation, be just; let us fulfil the public contracts, which Congress had undoubtedly a right to make for the purpose of carrying on the war, with the same good faith we suppose ourselves bound to perform our private engagements. In the mean time, let an attention to the cheerful performance of their proper business, as individuals and as members of society, be earnestly inculcated on the citizens of America; then will they strengthen the hands of government, and be happy under its protection; every one will reap the fruit of his labours, every one will enjoy his own acquisitions, without molestation and without danger.

In this state of absolute freedom and perfect security, who will grudge to yield a very little of his property to support the common interest of society, and insure the protection of government? Who does not remember the frequent declarations, at the commencement of the war, that we should be completely satisfied if, at the expense of one-half, we could defend the remainder of our possessions? Where is the man to be found who wishes to remain indebted for the defence of his own person and property to the exertions, the bravery, and the blood of others, without making one generous effort to repay the debt of honour and gratitude? In what part of the continent shall we find any man, or body of men, who would not blush to stand up and propose measures, purposely calculated to rob the soldier of his stipend, and the public creditor of his due? And were it possible that such a flagrant instance of injustice could ever happen, would it not excite the general indignation, and tend to bring down upon the authors of such measures the aggravated vengeance of Heaven? If, after all, a spirit of disunion, or a temper of obstinacy and perverseness should manifest itself in any of the States; if such an ungracious disposition should attempt to frustrate all the happy effects that might be expected to flow from the Union; if there should be a refusal to comply with the requisitions for funds to discharge the annual interest of the public debts; and if that refusal should revive again all those jealousies and produce all those evils which are now happily removed, Congress, who have, in all their transactions, shown a great degree of magnanimity and justice, will stand justified in the sight of God and man; and that State alone, which puts itself in opposition to the aggregate wisdom of the continent, and follows such mistaken and pernicious counsels, will be responsible for all the consequences.

For my own part, conscious of having acted, while a servant of the public, in the manner I conceived best suited to promote the real interests of my country; having, in consequence of my fixed belief, in some measure pledged myself to the army, that their country would finally do them complete and ample justice; and not wishing to conceal any instance of my official conduct from the eyes of the world, I have thought proper to transmit to your Excellency the enclosed collection of papers, relative to the half-pay and commutation granted by Congress to the officers of the army. From these communications, my decided sentiments will be clearly comprehended, together with the conclusive reasons which induced me, at an early period, to recommend the adoption of the measure, in the most earnest and serious manner. As the proceedings of Congress, the army, and myself, are open to all, and contain, in my opinion, sufficient information to remove the prejudices and errors, which may have been entertained by any, I think it unnecessary to say anything more than just to observe, that the resolutions of Congress, now alluded to, are undoubtedly as absolutely binding upon the United States as the most solemn acts of confederation or legislation.

As to the idea which, I am informed, has in some instances prevailed, that the half-pay and commutation are to be regarded merely in the odious light of a

pension, it ought to be exploded forever. That provision should be viewed, as it really was, a reasonable compensation offered by Congress, at a time when they had nothing else to give to the officers of the army for services then to be performed. It was the only means to prevent a total dereliction of the service. It was a part of their hire. I may be allowed to say, it was the price of their blood, and of your independency; it is therefore more than a common debt, it is a debt of honour; it can never be considered as a pension or gratuity, nor be cancelled until it is fairly discharged.

With regard to a distinction between officers and soldiers, it is sufficient that the uniform experience of every nation of the world, combined with our own, proves the utility and propriety of the discrimination. Rewards, in proportion to the aids which the public derives from them, are unquestionably due to all its servants. In some lines, the soldiers have perhaps generally had as ample compensation for their services, by the large bounties which have been paid to them, as their officers will receive in the proposed commutation; in others, if, besides the donation of lands, the payment of arrearages of clothing and wages (in which articles all the component parts of the army must be put upon the same footing), we take into the estimate the bounties many of the soldiers have received, and the gratuity of one year's full pay, which is promised to all, possibly their situation (every circumstance being duly considered) will not be deemed less eligible than that of the officers. Should a further reward, however, be judged equitable, I will venture to assert, no one will enjoy greater satisfaction than myself, on seeing an exemption from taxes for a limited time (which has been petitioned for in some instances), or any other adequate immunity or compensation granted to the brave defenders of their country's cause; but neither the adoption nor rejection of this proposition will in any manner affect, much less militate against, the act of Congress, by which they have offered five years' full pay, in lieu of the half-pay for life, which had been before promised to the officers of the army.

Before I conclude the subject of public justice, I cannot omit to mention the obligations this country is under to that meritorious class of veteran non-commissioned officers and privates who have been discharged for inability, in consequence of the resolution of Congress of the 23d of April, 1782, on an annual pension for life. Their peculiar sufferings, their singular merits, and claims to that provision, need only be known, to interest all the feelings of humanity in their behalf. Nothing but a punctual payment of their annual allowance can rescue them from the most complicated misery; and nothing could be a more melancholy and distressing sight than to behold those, who have shed their blood or lost their limbs in the service of their country, without a shelter, without a friend, and without the means of obtaining any of the necessaries or comforts of life, compelled to beg their daily bread from door to door. Suffer me to recommend those of this description, belonging to your State, to the warmest patronage of your Excellency and your legislature.

It is necessary to say but a few words on the third topic which was proposed, and which regards particularly the defence of the republic; as there can be little doubt that Congress will recommend a proper peace establishment for the United States, in which a due attention will be paid to the importance of placing the militia of the Union upon a regular and respectable footing. If this should be the case, I would beg leave to urge the great advantage of it in the strongest terms. The militia of this country must be considered as the palladium of our security, and the first effectual resort in case of hostility. It is essential, therefore, that the same system should pervade the whole; that the formation and discipline of the militia of the continent should be absolutely uniform, and that the same species of arms, accoutrements, and military apparatus, should be introduced in every part of the United States. No one, who has not learned it from experience, can conceive the difficulty, expense, and confusion, which result from a contrary system, or the vague arrangements which have hitherto prevailed.

If, in treating of political points, a greater latitude than usual has been

taken in the course of this address, the importance of the crisis, and the magnitude of the objects in discussion, must be my apology. It is, however, neither my wish nor expectation, that the preceding observations should claim any regard, except so far as they shall appear to be dictated by a good intention, consonant to the immutable rules of justice, calculated to produce a liberal system of policy, and founded on whatever experience may have been acquired by a long and close attention to public business. Here I might speak with the more confidence, from my actual observations; and, if it would not swell this letter (already too prolix) beyond the bounds I had prescribed to myself, I could demonstrate, to every mind open to conviction, that in less time, and with much less expense, than has been incurred, the war might have been brought to the same happy conclusion, if the resources of the continent could have been properly drawn forth; that the distresses and disappointments, which have very often occurred, have, in too many instances, resulted more from a want of energy in the Continental government, than a deficiency of means in the particular States; that the inefficacy of measures arising from the want of an adequate authority in the supreme power, from a partial compliance with the requisitions of Congress in some of the States, and from a failure of punctuality in others, while it tended to damp the zeal of those, who were more willing to exert themselves, served also to accumulate the expenses of the war, and to frustrate the best concerted plans; and that the discouragement occasioned by the complicated difficulties and embarrassments, in which our affairs were by this means involved, would have long ago produced the dissolution of any army, less patient, less virtuous, and less persevering, than that which I have had the honour to command. But, while I mention these things, which are notorious facts, as the defects of our federal constitution, particularly in the prosecution of a war, I beg it may be understood, that, as I have ever taken a pleasure in gratefully acknowledging the assistance and support I have derived from every class of citizens, so shall I always be happy to do justice to the unparalleled exertions of the individual States on many interesting occasions.

I have thus freely disclosed what I wished to make known, before I surrendered up my public trust to those who committed it to me. The task is now accomplished. I now bid adieu to your Excellency as the chief magistrate of your State, at the same time I bid a last farewell to the cares of office, and all the employments of public life.

It remains, then, to be my final and only request, that your Excellency will communicate these sentiments to your legislature at their next meeting, and that they may be considered as the legacy of one, who has ardently wished, on all occasions, to be useful to his country, and who, even in the shade of retirement, will not fail to implore the Divine benediction upon it.

I now make it my earnest prayer, that God would have you, and the State over which you preside, in his holy protection; that he would incline the hearts of the citizens to cultivate a spirit of subordination and obedience to government; to entertain a brotherly affection and love for one another, for their fellow-citizens of the United States at large, and particularly for their brethren who have served in the field; and finally, that he would most graciously be pleased to dispose us all to do justice, to love mercy, and to demean ourselves with that charity, humility, and pacific temper of mind which were the characteristics of the Divine Author of our blessed religion, and without an humble imitation of whose example in these things we can never hope to be a happy nation.

I have the honour to be, with much esteem and respect, sir, your Excellency's most obedient and most humble servant,

GEORGE WASHINGTON.

Washington's Letters on the Constitution.—The personal influence of Washington in securing the meeting of the constitutional convention, in directing its deliberations, and in commending the new Constitution to the people, was the greatest and the determining influence in that critical period. The accompanying selec-

tions from his large correspondence upon this important subject while it was pending will indicate the character of that influence and of Washington's sentiments concerning the new national government. The student is referred to vol. xi. of Ford's edition of the writings of Washington for the complete collection of his letters during this period. He will also find in that volume Washington's diary during the constitutional convention, which, although but a skeleton, will give him an insight into Washington's life in Philadelphia from May to September, 1787. In the various *Lives* of Washington, in the last volume of Bancroft's *History of the United States*, in Fiske's *Critical Period of American History*, and in other American histories, are good accounts of the disorders following the Revolution, and of the successful measures, so largely directed by Washington, which gradually brought order out of chaos. In the series of *Old South Leaflets* are many which will be of use in this connection. Among these are *Washington's Circular Letter* to the governors of the States in 1783 (No. 15), *Washington's Letter to Benjamin Harrison* in 1784 (No. 16), *Selections from the Debates in the Constitutional Convention* (No. 70), *Selections from the Federalist* (No. 12), and *Washington's Inaugural* (No. 10).

Aug. 1, 1786.

To John Jay.

Your sentiments, that our affairs are drawing rapidly to a crisis, accord with my own. What the event will be, is also beyond the reach of my foresight. We have errors to correct. We have probably had too good an opinion of human nature in forming our confederation. Experience has taught us that man will not adopt and carry into execution measures the best calculated for their own good, without the intervention of a coercive power. I do not conceive we can exist long as a nation without having lodged somewhere a power which will pervade the whole Union in as energetic a manner as the authority of the State governments extends over the several States.

To be fearful of investing Congress, constituted as that body is, with ample authorities for national purposes, appears to me the very climax of popular absurdity and madness. Could Congress exert them for the detriment of the public without injuring themselves in an equal or greater proportion? Are not their interests inseparably connected with those of their constituents? By the rotation of appointment, must they not mingle frequently with the mass of citizens? Is it not rather to be apprehended, if they were possessed of the powers before described, that the individual members would be induced to use them, on many occasions, very timidly and efficaciously for fear of losing their popularity and future election? We must take human nature as we find it. Perfection falls not to the share of mortals. Many are of opinion that Congress have too frequently made use of the suppliant, humble tone of requisition in applications to the States, when they had a right to assert their imperial dignity and command obedience. Be that as it may, requisitions are a perfect nullity where thirteen sovereign, independent, disunited States are in the habit of discussing and refusing compliance with them at their option. Requisitions are actually little better than a jest and a by-word throughout the land. If you tell the legislatures they have violated the treaty of peace, and invaded the prerogatives of the confederacy, they will laugh in your face. What then is to be done? Things cannot go on in the same train forever. It is much to be feared, as you observe, that the better kind of people, being disgusted with the circumstances, will have their minds prepared for any revolution whatever. We are apt to run from one extreme to another. To anticipate and prevent disastrous contingencies would be the part of wisdom and patriotism.

What astonishing changes a few years are capable of producing. I am told that even respectable characters speak of a monarchical form of government without horror. From thinking proceeds speaking; thence to acting is often but a single step. But how irrevocable and tremendous! What a triumph for our enemies to verify their predictions! What a triumph for the advocates of despotism to find that we are incapable of governing ourselves, and that systems founded on

the basis of equal liberty are merely ideal and fallacious! Would to God, that wise measures may be taken in time to avert the consequences we have but too much reason to apprehend.

Retired as I am from the world, I frankly acknowledge I cannot feel myself an unconcerned spectator. Yet, having happily assisted in bringing the ship into port, and having been fairly discharged, it is not my business to embark again on a sea of troubles. Nor could it be expected that my sentiments and opinions would have much weight on the minds of my countrymen. They have been neglected, though given as a last legacy, in the most solemn manner. I had then perhaps some claims to public attention. I consider myself as having none at present.

Nov. 5, 1786.

To James Madison.

Fain would I hope that the great and most important of all subjects, the *federal government*, may be considered with that calm and deliberate attention which the magnitude of it so critically and loudly calls for at this critical moment. Let prejudices, unreasonable jealousies, and local interests yield to reason and liberality. Let us look to our national character, and to things beyond the present moment. No morn ever dawned more favourably than ours did; and no day was ever more clouded than the present. Wisdom and good examples are necessary at this time to rescue the political machine from the impending storm. Virginia has now an opportunity to set the latter, and has enough of the former, I hope, to take the lead in promoting this great and arduous work. Without an alteration in our political creed, the superstructure we have been seven years in raising, at the expense of so much treasure and blood, must fall. We are fast verging to anarchy and confusion.

By a letter which I have received from General Knox, who had just returned from Massachusetts, whither he had been sent by Congress consequent of the commotions in that State, is replete with melancholy accounts of the temper and designs of a considerable part of that people. Among other things he says:

"Their creed is, that the property of the United States has been protected from the confiscation of Britain by the joint exertions of *all;* and therefore ought to be the *common property of all;* and he that attempts opposition to this creed is an enemy to equity and justice, and ought to be swept from off the face of the earth." Again: "They are determined to annihilate all debts, public and private, and have agrarian laws, which are easily effected by the means of unfunded paper money, which shall be a tender in all cases whatever." He adds: "The number of these people amount in Massachusetts to about one-fifth part of several populous counties, and to them may be collected people of similar sentiments from the States of Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New Hampshire, so as to constitute a body of about twelve or fifteen thousand desperate and unprincipled men. They are chiefly of the young and active part of the community."

How melancholy is the reflection that in so short a space we should have made such large strides towards fulfilling the predictions of our transatlantic foes! "Leave them to themselves, and their government will soon dissolve." Will not the wise and good strive hard to avert this evil? Or will their supineness suffer ignorance and the arts of self-interested, designing, disaffected, and desperate characters to involve this great country in wretchedness and contempt? What stronger evidence can be given of the want of energy in our government than these disorders? If there is not a power in it to check them, what security has a man for life, liberty, or property? To you I am sure I need not add aught on this subject. The consequences of a lax or inefficient government are too obvious to be dwelt upon. Thirteen sovereignties pulling against each other, and all tugging at the federal head, will soon bring ruin on the whole; whereas a liberal and energetic constitution, well guarded and closely watched to prevent encroachments, might restore us to that degree of respectability and consequences, to which we had a fair claim and the brightest prospect of attaining.

Dec. 26, 1786.

To Henry Knox.

In both your letters you intimate that

the men of reflection, principle, and property in New England, feeling the inefficacy of their present government, are contemplating a change; but you are not explicit with respect to its nature. It has been supposed that the constitution of the State of Massachusetts was amongst the most energetic in the Union. May not these disorders then be ascribed to an indulgent exercise of the powers of administration? If your laws authorized, and your powers are equal to the suppression of these tumults in the first instance, delay and unnecessary expedients were improper. These are rarely well applied; and the same causes would produce similar effects in any form of government, if the powers of it are not exercised. I ask this question for information. I know nothing of the facts.

That Great Britain will be an unconcerned spectator of the present insurrections, if they continue, is not to be expected. That she is at this moment sowing the seeds of jealousy and discontent among the various tribes of Indians on our frontiers admits of no doubt in my mind; and that she will improve every opportunity to foment the spirit of turbulence within the bowels of the United States, with a view of distracting our governments and promoting divisions, is with me not less certain. Her first manœuvres in this will no doubt be covert, and may remain so till the period shall arrive when a decided line of conduct may avail her. Charges of violating the treaty, and other pretexts, will then not be wanting to colour overt acts, tending to effect the great objects of which she has long been in labour. A man is now at the head of their American affairs well calculated to conduct measures of this kind, and more than probably was selected for the purpose. We ought not therefore to sleep nor to slumber. Vigilance in watching and vigour in acting is become in my opinion indispensably necessary. If the powers are inadequate, amend or alter them; but do not let us sink into the lowest state of humiliation and contempt, and become a by-word in all the earth.

Feb. 3, 1787.

To Henry Knox.

In your letter of the 14th you express a wish to be informed of my intention, respecting the convention proposed to be held in Philadelphia May next. *In confidence* I inform you, that it is not, at this time, my intention to attend it. When this matter was first moved in the Assembly of this State, some of the principal characters of it wrote to me, requesting they might be permitted to put my name in the delegation. To this I objected. They again pressed, and I again refused, assigning among other reasons my having declined meeting the Society of the Cincinnati at that place about the same time, and that I thought it would be disrespectful to that body, to whom I owe much, to be there on any other occasion. Notwithstanding these intimations, my name was inserted in the act; and an official communication thereof made by the executive to me, to whom, at the same time that I expressed my sense for the confidence reposed in me, I declared that, as I saw no prospect of my attending, it was my wish that my name might not remain in the delegation to the exclusion of another. To this I have been requested in emphatical terms not to decide absolutely, as no inconvenience would result from the new appointment of another, at least for some time yet.

Thus the matter stands, which is the reason of my saying to you *in confidence*, that at present I retain my first intention not to go. In the mean while, as I have the fullest conviction of your friendship for and attachment to me, know your abilities to judge, and your means of information, I shall receive any communications from you on this subject with thankfulness. My first wish is to do for the best, and to act with propriety. You know me too well to believe that reserve or concealment of any opinion or circumstance would be at all agreeable to me. The legality of this convention I do not mean to discuss, nor how problematical the issue of it may be. That powers are wanting none can deny. Through what medium they are to be derived will, like other matters engage the attention of the wise. That which takes the shortest course to obtain them, in my opinion will under present circumstances, be found best; otherwise, like a house on fire, whilst the most regular mode of extinguishing the

flames is contended for, the building is reduced to ashes. My opinions of the energetic wants of the federal government are well known. My public annunciations and private declarations have uniformly expressed these sentiments; and, however constitutional it may be for Congress to point out the defects of the federal system, I am strongly inclined to believe that it would not be found the most efficacious channel for the recommendations, more especially the alterations, to flow, for reasons too obvious to enumerate.*

The system on which you seem disposed to build a national government is certainly more energetic, and I dare say in every point of view more desirable than the present, which from experience we find is not only slow, debilitated, and liable to be thwarted by every breath, but is defective in that secrecy which, for the accomplishment of many of the most important national objects, is indispensably necessary; and besides, having the legislative, executive, and judiciary departments concentred, is exceptionable. But, at the same time that I gave this opinion, I believe the political machine will yet be much tumbled and tossed, and possibly be wrecked altogether, before that or anything like it will be adopted. The darling sovereignties of each State, the governors elected and elect, the legislators, with a long tribe of et ceteras, whose political importance will be lessened, if not annihilated, would give their weight of opposition to such a revolution. But I may be speaking without book; for, scarcely ever going off my own farms, I see few people, who do not call upon me, and am very little acquainted with the sentiments of the great public. Indeed, after what I have seen, or rather after what I have heard, I shall be surprised at nothing; for, if three years since any person had told me that there would have been such a formidable rebellion as exists at this day against the laws and Constitution of our own making, I should have thought him a bedlamite, a fit subject for a mad-house.

* To Mr. Jay he wrote, touching upon the same subject, more than a month later: "I would fain try what the wisdom of the proposed convention will suggest, and what can be effected by their counsels. It may be the last peaceable mode of essaying the practicability of the present form, without a greater lapse of time, that the exigency of our affairs will allow. In strict propriety, a convention so holden may not be legal. Congress, however, may give it a colouring by recommendation, which would fit it more to the taste, without proceeding to a definition of the powers. This, however constitutionally it might be done, would not in my opinion be expedient."—March 10th.

March 31, 1787.

To James Madison.

I am glad to find that Congress have recommended to the States to appear in the convention proposed to be holden in Philadelphia next May. I think the reasons in favour have the preponderancy over those against it. It is idle in my opinion to suppose that the sovereign can be insensible to the inadequacy of the powers under which they act, and that, seeing it, they should not recommend a revision of the federal system; especially when it is considered by many as the only constitutional mode by which the defects can be remedied. Had Congress proceeded to a delineation of the powers, it might have sounded an alarm; but, as the case is, I do not conceive that it will have that effect.* . . .

I am fully of opinion that those who lean to a monarchical government have either not consulted the public mind, or that they live in a region which (the levelling principles in which they were bred being entirely eradicated) is much more productive of monarchical ideas than are to be found in the Southern States, where, from the habitual distinctions which have always existed among the people, one would have expected the first generation and the most rapid growth of them. I am also clear that, even admitting the utility, nay, necessity of the form, yet that the period is not arrived for adopting the change without shaking the peace of this country to its foundation. That a thorough reform of the present system is in-

* The commissioners, who had met at Annapolis in September, 1786, sent a letter to Congress, accompanied by their address to the several States, proposing a convention at Philadelphia on the second Monday of May. These papers were taken up by Congress and referred to a committee, consisting of one member from each State, who reported in favour of recommending to the several legislatures to send delegates.

dispensable, none, who have capacities to judge, will deny; and with hand [and heart] I hope the business will be essayed in a full convention. After which, if more powers and more decision is not found in the existing form, if it still wants energy and that secrecy and despatch (either from the non-attendance or the local views of its members) which is characteristic of good government, and if it shall be found (the contrary of which, however, I have always been more afraid of than of the abuse of them), that Congress will, upon all proper occasions, exert the powers which are given, with a firm and steady hand, instead of frittering them back to the States, where the members, in place of viewing themselves in their national character, are too apt to be looking—I say, after this essay is made, if the system proves inefficient, conviction of the necessity of a change will be disseminated among all classes of the people. Then, and not till then, in my opinion, can it be attempted without involving all the evils of civil discord.

I confess, however, that my opinion of public virtue is so far changed that I have my doubts whether any system, without the means of coercion in the sovereign, will enforce due obedience to the ordinances of a general government; without which everything else fails. Laws or ordinances unobserved, or partially attended to, had better never have been made; because the first is a mere nihil, and the second is productive of much jealousy and discontent. But what kind of coercion, you may ask. This indeed will require thought, though the non-compliance of the States with the late requisition is an evidence of the necessity. It is somewhat singular that a State (New York), which used to be foremost in all federal measures, should now turn her face against them in almost every instance. . . .

It gives me great pleasure to hear that there is a probability of a full representation of the States in convention; but if the delegates come to it under fetters, the salutary ends proposed will, in my opinion, be greatly embarrassed and retarded, if not altogether defeated. I am desirous of knowing how this matter is, as my wish is that the convention may adopt no temporizing expedients, but probe the defects of the constitution to the bottom, and provide a radical cure, whether they are agreed to or not. A conduct of this kind will stamp wisdom and dignity on their proceedings and hold up a light which sooner or later will have its influence.*

Sept. 24, 1787.

To Patrick Henry.

In the first moment after my return, I take the liberty of sending you a copy of the Constitution, which the federal convention has submitted to the people of these States. I accompany it with no observations. Your own judgment will at once discover the good and the exceptionable parts of it; and your experience of the difficulties, which have ever arisen when attempts have been made to reconcile such variety of interests and local prejudices as pervade the several States will render explanation unnecessary. I wish the Constitution, which is offered, had been made more perfect; but I sincerely believe it is the best that could be

* "It gives me pleasure to find by your letter that there will be so full a representation from this State. If the case had been otherwise, I would in emphatic terms have urged again that, rather than depend upon my going, another might be chosen in my place; for, as a friend and in confidence, I declare to you that my assent is given contrary to my judgment; because the act will, I apprehend, be considered as inconsistent with my public declaration, delivered in a solemn manner at an interesting era of my life, never more to intermeddle in public matters. This declaration not only stands on the files of Congress, but is, I believe, registered in almost all the gazettes and magazines that are published; and what adds to the embarrassment is, I had, previous to my appointment, informed by a circular letter the several State Societies of the Cincinnati of my intention to decline the presidency of that order, and excused myself from attending the next general meeting at Philadelphia on the first Monday in May; assigning reasons for so doing, which apply as well in the one case as in the other. Add to these, I very much fear that all the States will not appear in convention, and that some of them will come fettered so as to impede rather than accelerate the great object of their convening; which, under the peculiar circumstances of my case, would place me in a more disagreeable situation than any other member would stand in. As I have yielded, however, to what appeared to be the earnest wishes of my friends, I will hope for the best."—Washington to Edmund Randolph, April 9, 1787.

obtained at this time. And, as a constitutional door is open for amendment hereafter, the adoption of it, under the present circumstances of the Union, is in my opinion desirable.

From a variety of concurring accounts it appears to me that the political concerns of this country are in a manner suspended by a thread, and that the convention has been looked up to, by the reflecting part of the community, with a solicitude which is hardly to be conceived; and, if nothing had been agreed on by that body, anarchy would soon have ensued, the seeds being deeply sown in every soil.

Oct., 1787.

To Henry Knox.

The Constitution is now before the judgment-seat. It has, as was expected, its adversaries and supporters. Which will preponderate is yet to be decided. The former more than probably will be most active, as a major part of them will, it is to be feared, be governed by sinister and self-important motives, to which everything in their breasts must yield. The opposition from another class of them may perhaps (if they should be men of reflection, candour, and information), subside in the solution of the following simple questions: 1. Is the Constitution, which is submitted by the convention, preferable to the government (if it can be called one) under which we now live? 2. Is it probable that more confidence would at the time be placed in another convention, provided the experiment should be tried, than was placed in the last one, and is it likely that a better agreement would take place therein? What would be the consequences if these should not happen, or even from the delay which must inevitably follow such an experiment? Is there not a constitutional door open for alterations or amendments? and is it not likely that real defects will be as readily discovered after as before trial? and will not our successors be as ready to apply the remedy as ourselves, if occasion should require it? To think otherwise will, in my judgment, be ascribing more of the *amor patriæ*, more wisdom and more virtue to ourselves, than I think we deserve.

It is highly probable that the refusal of our governor and Colonel Mason to subscribe to the proceedings of the convention will have a bad effect in this State; for, as you well observe, they *must* not only assign reasons for the justification of their own conduct, but it is highly probable that these reasons will be clothed in most terrific array for the purpose of alarming.* Some things are already addressed to the fears of the people, and will no doubt have their effect. As far, however, as the sense of this part of the country has been taken, it is strongly in favour of the proposed Constitution. Further I cannot speak with precision. If a powerful opposition is given to it, the weight thereof will, I apprehend, come from the south side of James River, and from the western counties.

Nov. 10, 1787.

To Bushrod Washington.

That the Assembly would afford the people an opportunity of deciding on the proposed Constitution, I had scarcely a doubt. The only question with me was whether it would go forth under favourable auspices, or receive the stamp of disapprobation. The opponents I expected (for it ever has been that the adversaries to a measure are more active than its friends) would endeavour to stamp it with unfavourable impressions, in order to bias the judgment that is ultimately to decide on it. This is evidently the case with the writers in opposition, whose objections are better calculated to alarm the fears than to convince the judgment of their readers. They build their objections upon principles that do not exist, which the Constitution does not support them in, and the existence of which has been, by an appeal to the Constitution itself, flatly denied; and then, as if they were unanswerable, draw all the dreadful consequences that are necessary to alarm the apprehensions of the ignorant or unthinking. It is not the interest of the major

* Randolph explained his position in a letter to the speaker of the House of Delegates, Oct. 10, 1787. It was widely circulated in the newspapers, and printed in pamphlet form. It was reprinted in Ford, *Pamphlets on the Constitution*, 359.

part of those characters to be convinced; nor will their local views yield to arguments which do not accord with their present or future prospects.

A candid solution of a single question, to which the plainest understanding is competent, does, in my opinion, decide the dispute; namely, Is it best for the States to unite or not to unite? If there are men who prefer the latter, then unquestionably the Constitution which is offered must, in their estimation, be wrong from the words, "*We the people*," to the signature, inclusively; but those who think differently, and yet object to parts of it, would do well to consider that it does not lie with any *one* State, or the *minority* of the States, to superstruct a constitution for the whole. The separate interests, as far as it is practicable, must be consolidated; and local views must be attended to, as far as the nature of the case will admit. Hence it is that every State has some objection to the present form, and these objections are directed to different points. That which is most pleasing to one is obnoxious to another, and so *vice versa*. If then the union of the whole is a desirable object, the component parts must yield a little in order to accomplish it. Without the latter, the form is unattainable; for again I repeat it, that not a single State, nor the minority of the States, can force a constitution on the majority. But, admitting the power, it will surely be granted that it cannot be done without involving scenes of civil commotion of a very serious nature.

Let the opponents of the proposed Constitution in this State be asked, and it is a question they certainly ought to have asked themselves, what line of conduct they would advise to adopt, if nine other States, of which I think there is little doubt, should accede to the Constitution. Would they recommend that it should stand single? Will they connect it with Rhode Island? Or even with two others checkerwise, and remain with them, as outcasts from the society, to shift for themselves? Or will they return to their dependence on Great Britain? Or, lastly, have the mortification to come in when they will be allowed no credit for doing so?

The warmest friends and the best supporters the Constitution has, do not contend that it is free from imperfections; but they found them unavoidable, and are sensible, if evil is likely to arise therefrom, the remedy must come hereafter; for in the present moment it is not to be obtained; and, as there is a constitutional door open for it, I think the people (for it is with them to judge) can, as they will have the advantage of experience on their side, decide with as much propriety on the alterations and amendments which are necessary, as ourselves. I do not think we are more inspired, have more wisdom, or possess more virtue, than those who will come after us.

The power under the Constitution will always be in the people. It is intrusted for certain defined purposes, and for a certain limited period, to representatives of their own choosing; and, whenever it is executed contrary to their interest, or not agreeable to their wishes, their servants can and undoubtedly will be recalled. It is agreed on all hands that no government can be well administered without powers; yet the instant these are delegated, although those who are intrusted with the administration are no more than the creatures of the people, act as it were but for a day, and are amenable for every false step they take, they are, from the moment they receive it, set down as tyrants; their natures, they would conceive from this, immediately changed, and that they can have no other disposition but to oppress. Of these things, in a government constituted and guarded as *ours* is, I have no idea; and do firmly believe that, whilst many *ostensible* reasons are assigned to prevent the adoption of it, the real ones are concealed behind the curtains, because they are not of a nature to appear in open day. I believe further, supposing them pure, that as great evils result from too great jealousy as from the want of it. We need look, I think, no further for proof of this, than to the constitution of some, if not all, of these States. No man is a warmer advocate for proper restraints and wholesome checks in every department of government than I am; but I have never yet been able to discover the propriety of placing it absolutely out of

the power of men to render essential services because a possiblity remains of their doing ill.

Nov. 30, 1787.

To David Stuart.

I have seen no publication yet that ought, in my judgment, to shake the proposed Constitution in the mind of an impartial and candid public. In fine, I have hardly seen one that is not addressed to the passions of the people, and obviously calculated to alarm their fears. Every attempt to amend the Constitution at this time is in my opinion idle and vain. If there are characters, who prefer disunion, or separate confederacies, to the general government, which is offered to them, their opposition may, for aught I know, proceed from principle; but as nothing, according to my conception of the matter, is more to be deprecated than a disunion of these distinct confederacies, as far as my voice can go it shall be offered in favour of the latter. That there are some writers, and others perhaps who may not have written, that wish to see this Union divided into several confederacies, is pretty evident. As an antidote to these opinions, and in order to investigate the ground of objections to the Constitution which is submitted, the *Federalist*, under the signature of PUBLIUS, is written. The numbers which have been published, I send you. If there is a printer in Richmond who is really well disposed to support the new Constitution, he would do well to give them a place in his paper. They are, I think I may venture to say, written by able men; and before they are finished will, or I am mistaken, place matters in a true point of light. Although I am acquainted with the writers, who have a hand in this work, I am not at liberty to mention names, nor would I have it known that they are sent by *me* to *you* for promulgation.*

Jan. 8, 1788.

To Edmund Randolph.

The diversity of sentiments upon the important matter, which has been submitted to the people, was as much expected as it is regretted by me. The various passions and *motives*, by which men are influenced, are concomitants of fallibility, engrafted into our nature for the purposes of unerring wisdom; but had I entertained a latent hope (at the time you moved to have the Constitution submitted to a second convention) that a more perfect form would be agreed to, in a word, that any constitution would be adopted under the impressions and instructions of the members, the publications which have taken place since would have eradicated every form of it. How do the sentiments of the influential characters in this State, who are opposed to the Constitution, and have favoured the public with their opinions, quadrate with each other? Are they not at variance on some of the most important points? If the opponents in the *same* State cannot agree in their principles, what prospect is there of a coalescence with the advocates of the measure, when the different views and jarring interests of so wide and extended an empire are to be brought forward and combated?

To my judgment it is more clear than ever that an attempt to amend the Constitution, which is submitted, would be productive of more heat and greater confusion than can well be conceived. There are some things in the new form, I will readily acknowledge, which never did, and I am persuaded never will, obtain my cordial approbation; but I then did conceive, and do now most firmly believe, that in the aggregate it is the best Constitution that can be obtained at this epoch, and that this, or a dissolution of the Union, awaits our choice, and are the only alternatives before us. Thus believing, I

* "Pray, if it is not a secret, who is the author or authors of Publius?"—Washington to Knox, Feb. 5, 1788.

Oct. 30, Hamilton sent to Washington the first number of the *Federalist*, without any intimation as to the authorship. "For the remaining numbers of PUBLIUS," wrote Washington, in reply, "I shall acknowledge myself obliged, as I am persuaded the subject will be well handled by the author of them." Nov. 18, Madison sent him seven numbers, suggesting that they be republished in Virginia, and saying that his own *degree* of connection with the publication was such as to "afford a restraint of delicacy from interesting myself directly in the republication elsewhere. You will recognize one of the pens concerned in the task. There are three in the whole. A fourth may possibly bear a part."

had not, nor have I now, any hesitation in deciding on which to lean.

April 25, 1788.

To the Marquis de Chastellux.

The Constitution which was proposed by the federal convention has been adopted by the States of Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Georgia. No State has rejected it. The convention of Maryland is now sitting, and will probably adopt it; as that of South Carolina is expected to do in May. The other conventions will assemble early in the summer. Hitherto there has been much greater unanimity in favour of the proposed government than could have reasonably been expected. Should it be adopted (and I think it will be), America will left up her head again, and in a few years become respectable among the nations. It is a flattering and consolatory reflection that our rising republics have the good wishes of all the philosophers, patriots, and virtuous men in all nations; and that they look upon them as a kind of asylum for mankind. God grant that we may not disappoint their honest expectations by our folly or perverseness. . . .

Aug. 31, 1788.

To Thomas Jefferson.

The merits and defects of the proposed Constitution have been largely and ably discussed. For myself, I was ready to have embraced any tolerable compromise that was competent to save us from impending ruin; and I can say there are scarcely any of the amendments, which have been suggested, to which I have much objection, except that which goes to the prevention of direct taxation. And that, I presume, will be more strenuously advocated and insisted upon hereafter than any other. I had indulged the expectation that the new government would enable those entrusted with its administration to do justice to the public creditors, and retrieve the national character. But, if no means are to be employed but requisitions, that expectation was vain, and we may as well recur to the old confederation. If the system can be put in operation, without touching much the pockets of the people, perhaps it may be done; but, in my judgment, infinite circumspection and prudence are yet necessary in the experiment. It is nearly impossible for anybody who has not been on the spot (from any description) to conceive what the delicacy and danger of our situation have been. Though the peril is not past entirely, thank God the prospect is somewhat brightening.

You will probably have heard, before the receipt of this letter, that the general government has been adopted by eleven States, and that the actual Congress have been prevented from issuing their ordinance for carrying it into execution, in consequence of a dispute about the place at which the future Congress shall meet. It is probable that Philadelphia or New York will soon be agreed upon.

I will just touch on the bright side of our national state before I conclude; and we may perhaps rejoice that the people have been ripened by misfortune for the reception of a good government. They are emerging from the gulf of dissipation and debt, into which they had precipitated themselves at the close of the war. Economy and industry are evidently gaining ground. Not only agriculture, but even manufactures are much more attended to than formerly. Notwithstanding the shackles under which our trade in general labours, commerce to the East Indies is prosecuted with considerable success. Salted provisions and other produce (particularly from Massachusetts) have found an advantageous market there. The voyages are so much shorter, and the vessels are navigated at so much less expense, that we may hope to rival and supply (at least through the West Indies) some part of Europe with commodities from thence. This year the exports from Massachusetts have amounted to a great deal more than their imports. I wish this was the case everywhere. . . .

Sept. 22, 1788.

To Henry Lee.

Your observations on the solemnity of the crisis, and its application to myself, bring before me subjects of the most momentous and interesting nature. In our

endeavours to establish a new general government, the contest, nationally considered, seems not to have been so much for glory as existence. It was for a long time doubtful whether we were to survive as an independent republic, or decline from our federal dignity into insignificant and wretched fragments of an empire. The adoption of the Constitution so extensively, and with so liberal an acquiescence on the part of the minorities in general, promised the former; until lately the circular letter of New York carried, in my apprehension, an unfavourable if not an insidious tendency to a contrary policy. I still hope for the best; but, before you mentioned it, I could not help fearing it would serve as a standard to which the disaffected might resort. It is now evidently the part of all honest men, who are friends to the new Constitution, to endeavour to give it a chance to disclose its merits and defects, by carrying it fairly into effect in the first instance. For it is to be apprehended that, by an attempt to obtain amendments before the experiment has been candidly made, "more is meant than meets the ear," that an intention is concealed to accomplish slyly what could not have been done openly, to undo all that has been done.

If the fact so exists, that a kind of combination is forming to stifle the government in embryo, it is a happy circumstance that the design has become suspected. Preparations should be the sure attendant upon forewarning. Probably prudence, wisdom, and patriotism were never more essentially necessary than at the present moment; and so far as it can be done in an irreproachably direct manner, no effort ought to be left unessayed to procure the election of the best possible characters to the new Congress. On their harmony, deliberation, and decision everything will depend. I heartily wish Mr. Madison was in our Assembly, as I think with you it is of unspeakable importance Virginia should set out with her federal measures under right auspices.

The principal topic of your letter is to me a point of great delicacy indeed, insomuch that I can scarcely without some impropriety touch upon it. In the first place, the event to which you allude may never happen; among other reasons, because, if the partiality of my fellow-citizens conceive it to be a means by which the sinews of the new government would be strengthened, it will of consequence be obnoxious to those who are in opposition to it, many of whom unquestionably will be placed among the electors.

This consideration alone would supersede the expediency of announcing any definite and irrevocable resolution. You are among the small number of those who know my invincible attachment to domestic life, and that my sincerest wish is to continue in the enjoyment of it solely until my final hour. But the world would be neither so well instructed, nor so candidly disposed, as to believe me uninfluenced by sinister motives, in case any circumstance should render a deviation from the line of conduct I have prescribed to myself indispensable.

Should the contingency you suggest take place, and (for argument's sake alone let me say it) should my unfeigned reluctance to accept the office be overcome by a deference for the reasons and opinions of my friends, might I not, after the declarations I have made (and Heaven knows they were made in the sincerity of my heart), in the judgment of the impartial world and of posterity, be chargeable with levity and inconsistency, if not with rashness and ambition? Nay, further, would there not even be some apparent foundation for the two former charges? Now justice to myself and tranquillity of conscience require that I should act a part, if not above imputation, at least capable of vindication. Nor will you conceive me to be too solicitous for reputation. Though I prize as I ought the good opinion of my fellow-citizens, yet, if I know myself, I would not seek or retain popularity at the expense of one social duty or moral virtue.

While doing what my conscience informed me was right, as it respected my God, my country, and myself, I could despise all the party clamour and unjust censure, which must be expected from some whose personal enmity might be occasioned by their hostility to the government. I am conscious that I fear alone to give any real occasion for obloquy, and that I do not dread to meet with unmerited reproach. And certain

I am, whensoever I shall be convinced the good of my country requires my reputation to be put in risk, regard for my own fame will not come in competition with an object of so much magnitude. If I declined the task, it would lie upon quite another principle. Notwithstanding my advanced season of life, my increasing fondness for agricultural amusements, and my growing love of retirement, augment and confirm my decided predilection for the character of a private citizen, yet it would be no one of these motives, nor the hazard to which my former reputation might be exposed, nor the terror of encountering new fatigues and troubles, that would deter me from an acceptance; but a belief that some other person, who had less pretence and less inclination to be excused, could execute all the duties fully as satisfactorily as myself. To say more would be indiscreet, as a disclosure of a refusal beforehand might incur the application of the fable in which the fox is represented as undervaluing the grapes he could not reach. You will perceive, my dear sir, by what is here observed (and which you will be pleased to consider in the light of a confidential communication), that my inclinations will dispose and decide me to remain as I am, unless a clear and insurmountable conviction should be impressed on my mind that some very disagreeable consequences must, in all human probability, result from the indulgence of my wishes.

Oct. 3, 1788.

*To Alexander Hamilton.**

Although I could not help observing, from several publications and letters, that my name had been sometimes spoken of, and that it was possible the *contingency* which is the subject of your letter might happen, yet I thought it best to maintain a guarded silence, and to lack the counsel of my best friends (which I certainly hold in the highest estimation), rather than to hazard an imputation unfriendly to the delicacy of my feelings. For, situated as I am, I could hardly bring the question into the slightest discussion, or ask an opinion even in the most confidential manner, without betraying, in my judgment, some impropriety of conduct, or without feeling an apprehension, that a premature display of anxiety might be construed into a vainglorious desire of pushing myself into notice as a candidate. Now, if I am not grossly deceived in myself, I should unfeignedly rejoice in case the electors, by giving their votes in favor of some other person, would save me from the dreaded dilemma of being forced to accept or refuse.

If that may not be, I am in the next place earnestly desirous of searching out the truth, and of knowing whether there does not exist a probability that the government would be just as happily and effectually carried into execution without my aid as with it. I am *truly* solicitous to obtain all the previous information which the circumstances will afford, and to determine (when the determination can with propriety be no longer postponed) according to the principles of right reason and the dictates of a clear conscience, without too great a reference to the unforeseen consequences which may affect my person or reputation. Until that period, I may fairly hold myself open to conviction, though I allow your sentiments to have weight in them; and I shall not pass by your arguments without giving them as dispassionate a consideration as I can possibly bestow upon them.

In taking a survey of the subject, in whatever point of light I have been able to place it, I will not suppress the acknowledgment, my dear sir, that I have always felt a kind of gloom upon my mind, as often as I have been taught to expect I might, and perhaps must, ere long, be called to make a decision. You will, I am well assured, believe the assertion (though I have little expectation it would gain credit from those who are less acquainted with me), that, if I should receive the appointment, and if I should be prevailed upon to accept it, the acceptance would be attended with more diffidence and reluctance than I ever experienced before in my life. It would be, however, with a

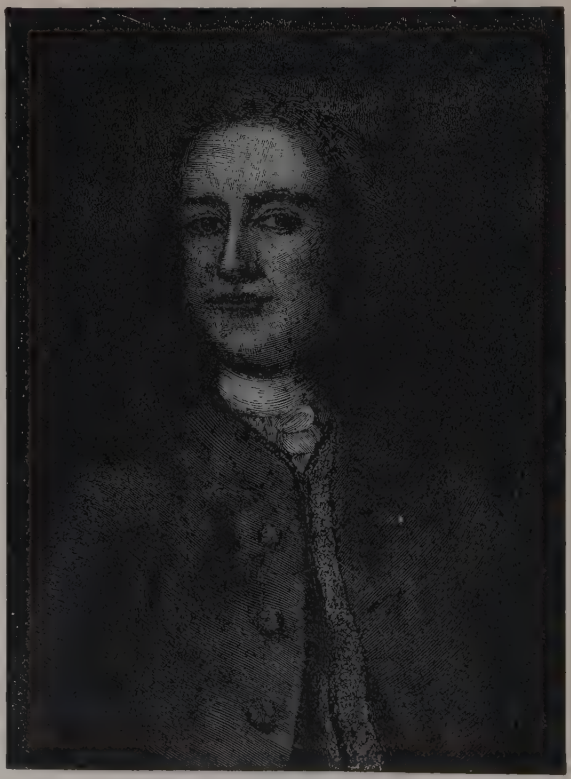
* See Hamilton's letter upon the importance of Washington serving as first President of the United States under the Constitution, in Ford's edition of *Washington*, xi. 329. "On your acceptance of the office of President," Hamilton wrote, "the success of the new government in its commencement may materially depend."

fixed and sole determination of lending whatever assistance might be in my power to promote the public weal, in hopes that at a convenient and early period my services might be dispensed with, and that I might be permitted once more to retire, to pass an unclouded evening after the stormy day of life, in the bosom of domestic tranquillity.

Washington, JOHN AUGUSTINE, military officer; born in Blakely, Jefferson co., Va., May 3, 1821; great-great-grandnephew of George Washington; graduated at the University of Virginia in 1840; served as aide-de-camp, with the rank of lieutenant-colonel, on the staff of Gen. Robert E. Lee, at the beginning of the Civil War; and was killed in a skirmish near Rich Mountain, Va., Sept. 13, 1861.

Washington, JOHN MARSHALL, military officer; born in Virginia in October, 1797; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1814; promoted first lieutenant of artillery in 1820; participated in the Seminole War in Florida in 1836–39, and was on duty near the frontier in the troubles with Canada in 1839–40. During the war with Mexico he won great distinction in the battle of Buena Vista, where he held the key of the American position, and repeatedly checked assaults by the enemy. He was promoted major a few days prior to the action of Buena Vista, for his services in which he was brevetted lieutenant-colonel. He was with his regiment, the 3d Artillery, on the *San Francisco* when that vessel was lost off the Capes of the Delaware on Dec. 24, 1853, when he, many officers, and 180 soldiers were drowned.

Washington, LAWRENCE, half-brother of George Washington; born in 1718. His mother, who was the first wife of Augustine Washington, father of George, was Jane Butler. Lawrence received by his father's will the estate of Hunting Creek, on a bay and stream of that name, not far from Alexandria, and stretching for miles along the Potomac. He inherited the military spirit of his father, and engaged in an expedition against the Spaniards in South America, holding a captain's commission. He embarked for the West Indies in 1741, under General Wentworth. That officer and Admiral Vernon commanded a joint expedition against Carthagena, which resulted in disaster, not less than 20,000 British soldiers and seamen perishing, chiefly from a fatal sickness like yellow fever. It was in the midst of that terrible pestilence that the seeds of a fatal disease were planted in the system of Lawrence Washington, against which he struggled for years. During the campaign he had gained the confidence



LAWRENCE WASHINGTON.

MARTHA WASHINGTON.

of both Wentworth and Vernon. Lawrence intended to go to England and join the regular army, but, falling in love with the beautiful Anne Fairfax, they were married in July, 1743. He took possession of his fine estate, and named it Mount Vernon, in honor of the gallant admiral. Little George was a frequent and much-petted visitor at Mount Vernon. In 1751, when George was nineteen years of age, his brother felt compelled to go to Barbadoes in search of a renovation of his health. George went with him. But consumption was wasting the life of Lawrence, and he returned home in May, 1752, to die in July following. By a provision of his will, his half-brother George became the owner of the Mount Vernon estate and other property valued at $200,000.

Washington, LEWIS WILLIAM, planter; born in Georgetown, D. C., about 1825; son of George C. Washington; received a good education; settled in Jefferson county, Va., and became a planter. He was conspicuously connected with John Brown's raid on Harper's Ferry in 1859, where he was captured by Brown and held as a hostage. During the Civil War his property was confiscated, but later was released by the government. He had a valuable collection of George Washington's relics, including the sword that was sent to him by Frederick the Great. He died at Harper's Ferry, W. Va., Oct. 1, 1871.

Washington, MARTHA, wife of George Washington; born in New Kent county, Va., in May, 1732. Her maiden name was

Dandridge, and at the age of seventeen years she married Daniel Parke Custis, son of one of the King's council for Virginia. At his death she was left with two children and a large fortune, and dwelt at his mansion, known as the White House, in New Kent county, until her marriage with Colonel Washington in January, 1759. Soon after their marriage they took up their abode at Mount Vernon, on the Potomac. She was a very beautiful woman, a little below the medium size, elegant in person, her eyes dark and expressive of the most kindly good-nature, her complexion fair, and her whole face beamed with intelligence. Her temper, though quick, was sweet and placable, and her manners were extremely winning. She loved the society of her friends, always dressed with scrupulous regard to the requirements of the best fashions of the day, and was in every respect a brilliant member of the social circles which, before the Revolution, composed the vice-regal court at the old Virginia capital. During the Revolutionary War she usually spent the winter months at the headquarters of her husband; and after the war she received with grace and dignity, as the head of the household of the great patriot, the numerous distinguished guests who thronged to Mount Vernon. One of her two children died just as she was blossoming into womanhood; the other, a son, was aide-de-camp to Washington during the war. He died in October, 1781, leaving two children—a son and a daughter—whom Washington adopted as his own.

MRS. WASHINGTON AS MARTHA CUSTIS.

MRS. WASHINGTON'S BRIDAL-WATCH.

On Dec. 11, 1775, Mrs. Washington arrived at Cambridge, accompanied by her son, John Parke Custis, and his wife. She was very hospitably received and welcomed by the most distinguished families in Massachusetts. The army hailed her presence on this, as on all other occasions, with enthusiasm. She was urged to make the visit and spend some time at headquarters by two motives—one, affection for her husband; and another, because of apprehensions of danger at Mount Vernon on account of the operations of Lord Dunmore. She remained in Cambridge until Howe evacuated Boston. Washington's headquarters there were in the fine mansion that was for many years the residence of Longfellow, the poet.

SHADOW PORTRAIT OF MARTHA WASHINGTON.

The people showed affectionate regard for Mrs. Washington, as the wife of the first President, when she journeyed from Mount Vernon to New York to join her husband there after the inauguration. She left Mount Vernon in her chaise on

May 19, 1789, with her two grandchildren, George Washington Parke and Eleanor Parke Custis. She was clothed tidily in American textile manufactures. She lodged at Baltimore on the first night of her journey. When she approached that city she was met by a cavalcade of gentlemen and escorted into the town. Fireworks were displayed in her honor, and a band of music serenaded her in the evening. When she approached Philadelphia she was met, 10 miles in the suburbs, by the governor of the State, the speaker of the Assembly, a troop of dragoons, and a large cavalcade of citizens. Some distance from the city she was welcomed by a brilliant company of women in carriages. She was escorted by these gentlemen and ladies to Gray's Ferry, on the

ONE OF MARTHA WASHINGTON'S TEA-CUPS.

Schuylkill, where they all partook of a collation; and from that point to the city Mrs. Robert Morris occupied a seat by the side of Mrs. Washington. When the procession entered the city the wife of the President was greeted with a salute of thirteen guns. She journeyed on to New York. At Elizabethtown Point she was received by her husband, Robert Morris, and several distinguished gentlemen, in the splendid barge in which Washington had been conveyed from the same place to New York a month before. It was manned by thirteen sailors. When the barge approached Whitehall, the landing-place in New York, crowds of citizens were there assembled, who greeted Mrs. Washington with cheers, and from the battery near by the thunder of thirteen cannon gave her a welcome. In all this there was nothing very extravagant, considering the circumstances. Yet there were sturdy republicans who viewed the pageantry with suspicion, believing that they saw in this a foreshowing of monarchical ceremonies. She died at Mount Vernon, Va., in May, 1802.

Washington, MARY, mother of George Washington. She is believed to have been a lineal descendant of John Ball, the mediæval champion of the rights of man, who was executed at Coventry in the year 1381 for participating in Wat Tyler's rebellion. Col. William Ball, a native of Kent, came from England with his family about the year 1650, and settled in Lancaster county, Va., where he died in 1659, leaving two sons, William and Joseph, and one daughter, Hannah. William left eight sons and one daughter, Mary, who was born in the year 1706. Joseph Ball was a well-to-do planter on the Rappahannock River, a vestryman of Christ Church in Lancaster. He was commissioned colonel by Gov. Alexander Spottswoode, and was known as Colonel Ball, of Lancaster, to distinguish him from another Colonel Ball, his cousin.

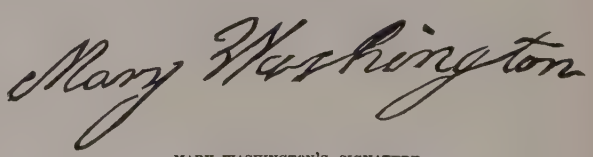
When Mary Ball was about seventeen years of age she wrote to her brother in England on family matters a letter which is still in existence, the conclusion of which is as follows: "We have not had a school-master in our neighborhood until now (Jan. 14, 1728) in nearly four years. We have now a young master living with us, who was educated at Oxford, took orders, and came over as assistant to Reverend Kemp, of Gloucester. That parish is too poor to keep both, and he teaches school for his board. He teaches sister Susie and me and Madam Carter's boy and two other scholars. I am now learning pretty fast. Mamma, Susie, and I all send love to you and Mary. This letter from your loving sister, Mary Ball."

Mary Ball married Augustine Washington in 1730. Their first child was George Washington, who, when seventeen years of age, wrote the following memorandum in his mother's Bible: "George Washington, son to Augustine and Mary, his wife, was born the eleventh day of February, 1731–32, about ten in the morning, and was baptized the 3d of April following. Mr. Beverley Whiting and Capt. Christopher Brooks, god-fathers, and Mrs. Mildred Gregory, god-mother."

Early in April, 1743, Augustine Wash-

MARY WASHINGTON (From an old print).

ington rode several hours in a cold rainstorm, became chilled, and died of fever on the 12th of the month, aged forty-nine years, leaving an ample estate for his widow and children; and directing that the proceeds of all the property of Mrs. Washington's children should be at her disposal until they had attained their majority. Mrs. Washington managed the estate with great judgment. The marriage of George Washington to Mrs. Custis made his mother very happy. The social position, the fortune, and the lovely character of his bride were extremely satisfactory to her. The assurance that her eldest son was now settled for life not far from his mother, where she might enjoy his society and consult with him about her affairs, was a great comfort.



MARY WASHINGTON'S SIGNATURE.

At the outbreak of the French and Indian War, Washington persuaded his mother to leave her exposed house on the Rappahannock, and remove to Fredericksburg, where she continued to live until

her death, Aug. 25, 1789. Her last interview with her beloved son took place in the spring of the same year. In 1894, through the instrumentality of the National Mary Washington Memorial Association, a monument was erected in honor of her memory at Fredericksburg, Va. It carries the following inscription: "Mary, the Mother of Washington. Erected by her Countrywomen."

MONUMENT IN MEMORY OF MARY WASHINGTON AT FREDERICKSBURG, VA.

WASHINGTON, STATE OF

Washington (named in honor of George Washington), a State in the Pacific Division of the North American Union; bounded on the n. by British Columbia, e. by Idaho, s. by Oregon, and w. by the Pacific Ocean; area, 69,127 square miles, of which 2,291 are water surface; extreme breadth, e. to w., 340 miles; extreme length, n. to s., 230 miles; number of counties, 37; capital, Olympia; popular name, "the Chinook State"; State flower, the rhododendron; State

motto, *Al-kai*, "Bye-bye"; organized as a Territory, March 2, 1853; admitted into the Union as the forty-second State, Nov. 11, 1889; population (1910), 1,141,990.

General Statistics.—Washington is noted for its grand forests, numerous volcanic and other mountain peaks of extraordinary altitude, and its manufacturing, lumbering, and coal-mining interests. Among its mountain peaks that have attained much renown are Mounts Rainier (14,363 feet), Adams (12,470), Baker (10,827), St. Helen's (10,000), Stuart (9,470), and Olympus (8,150), and Glacier Peak (10,436), Dome Peak (8,860), Star Peak (8,400), and Spire Point (8,220). Manufacturing is the most important and growing industry of the State, having over 3,670 factory-system establishments, employing $222,261,000 capital and 69,120 wage-earners, paying $59,593,000 for salaries and wages and $117,888,000 for materials, and yielding products valued at $220,746,000. These figures show an increase in ten years, in establishments from 1,926; capital, from $41,574,700; wage-earners from 31,523; salaries and wages, from $19,128,580; cost of materials, from $38,276,900; and value of products, from $70,831,340. The principal products are lumber and worked timber, flour and grist, packed meat, books and periodicals, malt liquors, foundry and machine-shop work, canned fish, and butter, cheese, and condensed milk.

Washington has over 55,740 farms, comprising 6,354,000 improved acres, representing in lands, buildings, and implements a value of $586,795,000, an increase in the value of lands and buildings of 393 per cent. in ten years. The ordinary farm crops have an annual value of about $65,700,000, wheat ($35,100,000), forage ($17,148,000), and oats ($5,871,000) leading. Over 335,000 acres are under irrigation, and systems completed and under construction will serve over 820,000 acres at a cost of $15,000,000. Domestic animals, poultry, and bees have a value of nearly $50,000,000, an increase of 119 per cent. in ten years. The State ranks fourth among the States of the country, and first among those on the Pacific in the extent of its fisheries, which employ about $3,440,000 capital and 5,000 persons, and yield products valued at $3,500,000, chiefly salmon, halibut, and oysters. Mineral productions in the State's record year (1909) showed a total value of nearly $15,500,000, of which coal exceeded $9,160,000.

General business interests are served by seventy-nine national banks, having $11,675,000 capital and resources of $125,370,000; 206 State banks, with $7,303,000 capital and $64,500,000 resources; seventeen loan and trust companies, with $3,857,000 capital and $25,075,000 resources; and twelve stock savings banks, with $1,500,000 capital and $12,027,000 resources. The exchanges at the clearing-houses at Spokane, Tacoma, North Yakima, and Seattle ($617,607,500) have exceeded $1,175,470,000 in a single year. The State has a large commerce with China, Japan, the Philippines, and other Asiatic points, aggregating, in 1910–11, over $76,000,000, the exports slightly exceeding the imports.

Religious interests are promoted by 1,771 organizations, having 1,416 church edifices, 191,976 communicants or members, 114,467 Sunday-school scholars, and church property valued at $8,082,986, the strongest denominations numerically being the Roman Catholic, Methodist, Presbyterian, Lutheran, Baptist, Disciples, and Congregational. The Protestant Episcopal Church has bishops at Olympia and Spokane, and the Roman Catholic, one at Seattle. The school age is 6–21; enrollment in the public schools, 215,688; average daily attendance, 156,064; total expenditure, $11,017,983; value of public-school property, $19,069,112; estimated number of pupils in private and parochial schools, 8,445. For higher education there are the University of Washington, at Seattle; State College of Washington, Bellingham; Gonzaga College (R. C.), Spokane; University of Puget Sound (M. E.), Tacoma; Whitworth College (Presb.), Tacoma; Whitman College (Cong.), Walla Walla; State normal schools at Bellingham, Cheney, and Ellensburg; and 182 public high schools. The State maintains a reform school at Chehalis, schools for the deaf and blind at Vancouver, and an institution for the feeble-minded at Medical Lake.

Government.—In 1851 a convention at Cowlitz Landing petitioned Congress to establish a separate government for "Col-

umbia," or the part of Oregon north of the Columbia River, and on March 2, 1853, Congress created a new Territory out of this region and named it Washington. In 1859 the area of the new Territory was increased by the addition of that part of Oregon not previously included, and in 1863 it was reduced to form the Territory of Idaho. A new constitution was ratified by popular vote in 1878, and another, with sections establishing woman suffrage and prohibition rejected, in 1889. In 1910 a constitutional amendment was adopted, granting the suffrage to women.

The executive authority is vested in a governor (annual salary, $6,000), lieutenant-governor, secretary of state, treasurer, attorney-general, adjutant-general, superintendent of public instruction, and commissioners of food, insurance, and public lands—official terms, four years. The legislature consists of a senate of forty-two members and a house of representatives of ninety-six members—terms of senators, four years; of representatives, two years; salary of each, $5 per diem; sessions, biennial; limit, sixty days. The chief judicial authority is a Supreme Court, comprising a chief-justice and eight associate justices. In 1911 the State had a bonded debt of $206,024; cash in its general fund, $247,453; assessed valuation (for 1910), $906,247,944; and a State tax rate of $29.82 per $1,000.

TERRITORIAL GOVERNORS.

	assumes office
I. I. Stevens	Nov.28, 1853
Fayette McMullen	September, 1857
C. H. Mason, acting	July, 185
Richard D. Gholson	July, 185
Henry M. McGill, acting	May, 1860
W. H. Wallace	1861
L. J. S. Turney, acting	1861
William Pickering	June, 1862
Marshall F. Moore	1867
Alvan Flanders	1869
Edward S. Salomon	1870
Elisha Pyre Ferry	1872
William A. Newell	1880
Watson C. Squire	1884
Eugene Semple	1887
Miles C. Moore	1888

STATE GOVERNORS.

	assumes office
Elisha P. Ferry	Nov. 18, 1889
John H. McGraw	January, 1893
John R. Rogers	January, 1897
Henry G. McBride	1901
A. E. Mead	1905
Samuel G. Cosgrove, died before taking office,	1909
Marion E. Hay	Jan. 13, 1909

Washington ranked fortieth in population among the States and Territories under the census of 1860; forty-second in 1870 and 1880; thirty-fourth in 1890; thirty-third in 1900; and thirtieth in 1910.

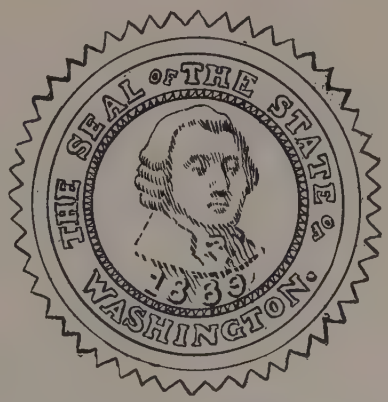
UNITED STATES SENATORS.

Name.	No. of Cong.	Term.
John B. Allen	51st to 53d	1890 to 1893
Watson C. Squire	51st " 55th	1890 " 1897
Vacant*	53d " ——	—— " ——
John L. Wilson	54th " 56th	1895 " 1899
George Turner	55th " 57th	1897 " 1903
Addison G. Foster	56th " 58th	1899 " 1905
Levi Ankeny	58th " 61st	1903 " 1909
Samuel H. Piles	59th " 62d	1905 " 1911
Wesley L. Jones	61st " ——	1909 " ——
Miles Poindexter	62d " ——	1911 " ——

* Upon the expiration of John B. Allen's term in 1893 there was a deadlock, and the office was vacant until Wilson's election in 1895.

In the apportionment of representation in Congress, Washington was given one member under the census of 1880; two in 1890; three in 1900; and five in 1910.

History.—The history of Washington from the earliest discoveries in that region till its organization as a Territory



STATE SEAL OF WASHINGTON.

is practically identical with that of OREGON (*q. v.*); of a more local character it may here be noted that in 1774 Juan Perez, in the ship *Santiago*, sailed along the coast of what is now Washington and

discovered Mount Olympus, which he named Santa Rosalia; that Bruno Heceta, at the head of a Spanish expedition, discovered the mouth of the Columbia River in 1775; that Captain Meares explored and named the Strait of Juan de Fuca, rediscovered and renamed Mount Olympus, and discovered and named Shoalwater Bay in 1788; and that George Vancouver discovered, explored, and named Puget Sound in 1792. The Lewis and Clarke expedition (see LEWIS, MERIWETHER) explored the coast and river in 1805, and Astoria, the first American settlement on the Pacific coast, was established by John Jacob Astor's Pacific Fur Company in 1811. In 1825 Dr. John McLoughlin, of the Hudson Bay Company, moved his headquarters from Astoria to Vancouver, which thus became the first settlement within the State of Washington. Nathaniel J. Wyeth, with twenty-one men, starting from Boston overland for Oregon, with a remnant of his party descended the Columbia, and arrived at Fort Vancouver, Oct. 29, 1832.

Later events, not previously noted, include the establishment of a mission station near the present Walla Walla by MARCUS WHITMAN (*q. v.*) and others in 1836; the massacre of Whitman and his family by Indians in 1847; convention of twenty-six delegates at Cowlitz Landing memorialized Congress for a separate government for "Columbia" (Oregon north of the Columbia), Aug. 29, 1851; the discovery of coal near Bellingham Bay in 1852, and of gold near Fort Colville in 1855; Indian war and massacres in 1855–58; the constitutional convention that met at Walla Walla, June 11, 1878, sitting twenty-four days; Constitution ratified by the people, November, 1878; the completion of the Northern Pacific Railroad in 1883; the President's proclamation of Washington as a State, Nov. 11, 1889; establishment of a United States naval station at Port Orchard in 1891, and its enlargement and renaming as the Puget Sound Navy-yard in 1901; the location of new army posts at Spokane and Seattle in 1896; the creation of the Mount Rainier National Park in 1899; and the Alaska-Yukon-Pacific Exposition held at Seattle in 1909.

WASHINGTON, TREATY OF

Washington, TREATY OF. Art. 1. Whereas differences have arisen between the government of the United States and the government of her Britannic Majesty, and still exist, growing out of the acts committed by the several vessels which have given rise to the claims generally known as the *Alabama* claims; and whereas her Britannic Majesty has authorized her high commissioners and plenipotentiaries to express in a friendly spirit the regret felt by her Majesty's government for the escape, under whatever circumstances, of the *Alabama* and other vessels from British ports, and for the depredations committed by those vessels; now, in order to remove and adjust all complaints and claims on the part of the United States, and to provide for the speedy settlement of such claims which are not admitted by her Britannic Majesty's government, the high contracting parties agree that all the said claims growing out of acts committed by the aforesaid vessels, and generally known as the *Alabama* claims, shall be referred to a tribunal of arbitration, to be composed of five arbitrators, to be appointed in the following manner, that is to say: One shall be named by the President of the United States; one shall be named by her Britannic Majesty; his Majesty the King of Italy shall be requested to name one; the President of the Swiss Confederation shall be requested to name one; and his Majesty the Emperor of Brazil shall be requested to name one. In case of death, absence, or incapacity to serve, of either of the said arbitrators, or in the event of either of the said arbitrators omitting or declining or ceasing to act as such, the President of the United States, or her Britannic Majesty, or his Majesty the King of Italy, or the President of the Swiss Confederation, or his Majesty the Emperor of Brazil, as the case may be, may forthwith name another person to act as arbitrator in the place and stead of the arbitrator originally named by such head of State; and in the event of

refusal or omission, for two months after the receipt of the request, from either of the high contracting parties, of his Majesty the King of Italy, or the President of the Swiss Confederation, or his Majesty the Emperor of Brazil, to name an arbitrator, either to fill the original appointment or in place of one who may have died, be absent, or incapacitated, or who may omit, decline, or from any cause cease to act as such arbitrator, his Majesty the King of Sweden and Norway shall be requested to name one or more persons, as the case may be, to act as such arbitrator or arbitrators.

Art. 2. The arbitrators shall meet at Geneva, in Switzerland, at the earliest day convenient after they shall have been named, and shall proceed impartially and carefully to examine and decide all questions that shall be laid before them on the part of the governments of the United States and her Britannic Majesty respectively. All questions considered by the tribunal, including the final award, shall be decided by a majority of all the arbitrators. Each of all of the high contracting parties shall also name one person to attend the tribunal as its agent to represent it generally in all matters connected with the arbitration.

Art. 3. The written or printed case of each of the two parties, accompanied by the documents, the official correspondence, and other evidence on which each relies, shall be delivered in duplicate to each of the arbitrators, and to the agent of the other party, as soon as may be after the organization of the tribunal, but within a period not exceeding six months from the date of the exchange of the ratification of this treaty.

Art. 4. Within four months after the delivery on both sides of the written or printed case, either party may, in like manner, deliver in duplicate to each of the said arbitrators, and to the agent of the other party, a counter-case, and additional documents, correspondence, and evidence, in reply to the other party. The arbitrators may, however, extend the time for delivering such counter-case, documents, correspondence, and evidence, when, in their judgment, it becomes necessary, in consequence of the distance of the place from which the evidence to be presented is to be procured. If, in the case submitted, any report or document in the exclusive possession of any party be omitted, such party shall be bound, if the other party thinks proper to apply for it, to furnish that party with a copy thereof, and either party may call upon the other, through the arbitrators, to produce the originals or certified copies of any papers adduced as evidence, giving in each instance such reasonable notes as the arbitrators may require.

Art. 5. It shall be the duty of the agent of each party, within two months after the expiration of the time limited for the delivery of the counter-case on both sides, to deliver in duplicate to each of the said arbitrators, and to the agent of the other party, a written or printed argument, showing the points and referring to the evidence upon which his government relies; and the arbitrators may, if they desire further elucidation with regard to any point, require a written or printed statement or argument, or oral argument by counsel upon it. But in such case the other party shall be entitled to reply, either orally or in writing, as the case may be.

Art. 6. In deciding the matters submitted to the arbitrators, they shall be governed by the following three rules to be taken as applicable to the case, and by such principles of international law, not inconsistent therewith, as the arbitrators shall determine to have been applicable to the case.

Rules.—A neutral government is bound. first, to use due diligence to prevent the fitting out, arming, or equipping, within its jurisdiction, of any vessel which it has reasonable ground to believe is intended to cruise or to carry on war against a power with which it is at peace, and also to use like diligence to prevent the departure from its jurisdiction of any vessel intended to cruise or carry on war as above, such vessel having been specially adapted, in whole or in part, within such jurisdiction, to warlike use; second, not to permit or suffer either belligerent to make use of its ports or waters as the base of naval operations against the other, or for the purpose of the renewal or augmentation of military supplies or arms, or the recruitment of men; third,

to exercise due diligence in its own ports and waters, and, as to all persons within its jurisdiction, to prevent any violation of the foregoing obligations and duties.

Her Britannic Majesty has commanded her high commissioners and plenipotentiaries to declare that her Majesty's government cannot assent to the foregoing rules, as a statement of principles of international law which were in force at the time when the claims mentioned in Art. 1 arose, but that her Britannic Majesty's government, in order to evince its desire of strengthening the friendly relations between the two countries and of making satisfactory provision for the future, agrees that, in deciding the questions between the two countries arising out of those claims, the arbitrators should assume that her Majesty's government had undertaken to act upon the principles set forth in these rules, and the high contracting parties agree to observe these rules between themselves in future, and to bring them to the knowledge of other maritime powers, and to invite them to accede to them.

Art. 7. The decision of the tribunal shall, if possible, be made within three months from the close of the argument on both sides. It shall be made in writing, and dated, and shall be signed by the arbitrators who may assent to it. The said tribunal shall first determine as to each vessel separately, whether Great Britain has by any act or omission failed to fulfil any of the duties set forth in the foregoing three rules, or recognized by the principles of international law, not inconsistent with such rules, and shall certify such fact as to each of the said vessels. In case the tribunal find that Great Britain has failed to fulfil any duty or duties as aforesaid, it may, if it think proper, proceed to award a sum in gross to be paid by Great Britain to the United States for all the claims referred to it; and in such case the gross sum so awarded shall be paid in coin by the government of Great Britain to the government of the United States at Washington within twelve months after the date of the award. The award shall be in duplicate, one copy whereof shall be delivered to the agent of the United States for his government; and the other copy shall be delivered to the agent of Great Britain for his government.

Art. 8. Each government shall pay its own agent, and provide for the proper remuneration of the counsel employed by it, and of the arbitrator appointed by it, and for the expense of preparing and submitting its case to the tribunal. All other expenses connected with the arbitration shall be defrayed by the two governments in equal moieties.

Art. 9. The arbitrators shall keep an accurate record of their proceedings, and may appoint and employ the necessary officers to assist them.

Art. 10. In case the tribunal finds that Great Britain has failed to fulfil any duty or duties, as aforesaid, and does not award a sum in gross, the high contracting parties agree that a board of assessors shall be appointed to ascertain and determine what claims are valid, and what amount or amounts shall be paid by Great Britain to the United States on account of the liability arising from such failure as to each vessel, according to the extent of such liability, as decided by the arbitrators. The board of assessors shall be constituted as follows: One member thereof shall be named by the President of the United States, one member thereof shall be named by her Britannic Majesty, one member thereof shall be named by the representative at Washington of his Majesty the King of Italy; and, in case of a vacancy happening from any cause, it shall be filled in the same manner in which the original appointment was made. As soon as possible, after such nominations, the board of assessors shall be organized in Washington, with power to hold their sittings there or in New York or in Boston. The members thereof shall severally subscribe a solemn declaration that they will impartially and carefully examine and decide, to the best of their judgment, and according to justice and equity, all matters submitted to them, and shall forthwith proceed, under such rules and regulations as they may prescribe, to the investigation of the claims which shall be presented to them by the government of the United States, and shall examine and decide upon them in such order and manner as they may think proper, but upon such evidence or information only as shall

be furnished by or on behalf of the governments of Great Britain and of the United States respectively. They shall be bound to hear on each separate claim, if required, one person on behalf of each government as counsel or agent. A majority of the assessors in each case shall be sufficient for a decision. The decision of the assessors shall be given upon such claim in writing, and shall be signed by them respectively, and dated. Every claim shall be presented to the assessors within six months from the day of their first meeting; but they may, for good cause shown, extend the time for the presentation of any claim to a further period not exceeding three months. The assessors shall report to each government, at or before the expiration of one year from the date of their first meeting, the amount of claims decided by them up to the date of such report. If further claims then remain undecided, they shall make a further report at or before the expiration of two years from the date of such first meeting; and in case any claims remain undetermined at that time, they shall make a final report within a further period of six months. The report shall be made in duplicate, and one copy thereof shall be delivered to the Secretary of State of the United States, and one copy thereof to the representative of her Britannic Majesty at Washington. All sums of money which may be awarded under this article shall be payable at Washington, in coin, within twelve months after the delivery of each report. The board of assessors may employ such clerks as they shall think necessary. The expenses of the board of assessors shall be assumed equally by the two governments, and paid from time to time, as may be found expedient, on the production of accounts certified by the board. The remuneration of the assessors shall also be paid by the two governments in equal moieties in a similar manner.

Art. 11. The high contracting parties engaged to consider the result of the proceedings of the tribunal of arbitration and of the board of assessors, should such board be appointed, as a full, perfect, and final settlement of all the claims hereinbefore referred to, and further engage that every such claim, whether the same may or may not have been presented to the notice of, made, preferred, or laid before the tribunal or board, shall, from and after the conclusion of the proceedings of the tribunal or board, be considered and treated as finally settled, barred, and thenceforth inadmissible.

CLAIMS OF BRITISH SUBJECTS.

Art. 12. The high contracting parties agree that all claims on the part of corporations, companies, or private individuals—citizens of the United States—upon the government of her Britannic Majesty arising out of acts committed against the persons or property of citizens of the United States during the period between April 13, 1861, and April 9, 1865, inclusive (not being claims growing out of the acts of the vessels referred to in Art. 1 of this treaty), and all claims, with the like exception on the part of corporations, companies, or private individuals, subjects of her Britannic Majesty, upon the government of the United States arising out of acts committed against the persons or property of subjects of her Britannic Majesty during the same period, which may have been presented to either government for its interposition with the other, and which yet remain unsettled, as well as any other such claims which may be presented within the time specified in Art. 14 of this treaty, shall be referred to three commissioners, to be appointed in the following manner—that is to say, one commissioner shall be named by the President of the United States, one by her Britannic Majesty, and the third by the President of the United States and her Britannic Majesty conjointly; and in case the third commissioner shall not have been so named within a period of three months from the date of the exchange of the ratification of this treaty, then the third commissioner shall be named by the representative at Washington of his Majesty the King of Spain. In case of the death, absence, or incapacity of any commissioner, or in the event of any commissioner omitting or ceasing to act, the vacancy shall be filled in the manner hereinbefore provided for making the original appointment, the period of three months, in case of such substitution, being calculated from the

date of the happening of the vacancy. The commissioners so named shall meet at Washington at the earliest convenient period after they have been respectively named, and shall, before proceeding to any business, make and subscribe a solemn declaration that they will impartially and carefully examine and decide, to the best of their judgment and according to justice and equity, all such claims as shall be laid before them on the part of the governments of the United States and her Britannic Majesty, respectively, and such declarations shall be entered on the record of their proceedings.

Art. 13. The commissioners shall then forthwith proceed to the investigation of the claims which shall be presented to them. They shall investigate and decide such claims in such order and such manner as they may think proper, but upon such evidence or information only as shall be furnished by or on behalf of the respective governments. They shall be bound to receive and consider all written documents or statements which may be presented to them by or on behalf of the respective governments, in support of or in answer to any claim, and to hear, if required, one person on each side on behalf of each government, as counsel or agent for such government, on each and every separate claim. A majority of the commissioners shall be sufficient for an award in each case. The award shall be given upon each claim in writing, and shall be signed by the commissioners assenting to it. It shall be competent for each government to name one person to attend the commissioners as its agent, to present and support claims on its behalf, and to answer claims made upon it, and to represent it generally in all matters connected with the investigation and decision thereof. The high contracting parties hereby engage to consider the decision of the commissioners as absolutely final and conclusive upon each claim decided upon by them, and to give full effect to such decisions, without any objection, evasion, or delay whatsoever.

Art. 14. Every claim shall be presented to the commissioners within six months from the day of their first meeting, unless in any case where reasons for delay shall be established to the satisfaction of the commissioners, and in any such case the period for presenting the claim may be extended by them to any time not exceeding three months longer. The commissioners shall be bound to examine and decide upon every claim within two years from their first meeting. It shall be competent for the commissioners to decide in each case, whether any claim has or has not been made, preferred, and laid before them, either wholly or to any and what extent, according to the true intent and meaning of this treaty.

Art. 15. All sums of money which may be awarded by the commissioners on account of any claims shall be paid by the one government to the other, as the case may be, within twelve months after the date of the final award, without interest, and without any deduction, save as specified in Art. 16 of this treaty.

Art. 16. The commissioners shall keep an accurate record and correct minutes, or notes, of all their proceedings, with the dates thereof, and may appoint and employ a secretary, and any other necessary officer or officers, to assist them in the transaction of the business which may come before them. Each government shall pay its own commissioner, and agent, or counsel. All other expenses shall be defrayed by the two governments in equal moieties. The whole expenses of the commission, including contingent expenses, shall be paid by a ratable deduction on the amount of the sums awarded by the commissioners: Provided always that such deduction shall not exceed the rate of 5 per cent. on the sums so awarded.

Art. 17. The high contracting parties engage to consider the result of the proceedings of this commission as a full, perfect, and final settlement of all such claims as are mentioned in Art. 12 of this treaty upon either government, and further engage that every such claim, whether or not the same may have been presented to the notice of, made "preferred" or laid before the said commission, shall, from and after the conclusion of the proceedings of said commission, be considered, and treated as finally settled, barred, and thenceforth inadmissible.

THE FISHERIES.

Art. 18. It is agreed by the high contracting parties that, in addition to the

liberty secured to the United States fishermen by the convention between the United States and Great Britain, signed at London, on Oct. 20, 1818, of taking, curing, and drying fish on certain coasts of the British North American colonies, therein defined, and inhabitants of the United States shall have, in common with the subjects of her Britannic Majesty, the liberty, for the term of years mentioned in Art. 33 of this treaty, to take fish of every kind, except shell-fish, on the sea-coasts and shores, and in the bays, harbors, and creeks of the provinces of Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, and the colony of Prince Edward's Island, and of the several islands thereunto adjacent, without being restricted to any distance from the shore, with permission to land upon the said coasts, and shores, and islands, and also upon the Magdalen Islands, for the purpose of drying their nets and curing their fish: Provided that in so doing they do not interfere with the rights of private property, or with the British fishermen in the peaceable use of any part of the said coasts in their occupancy for the same purpose. It is understood that the above-mentioned liberty applies solely to the sea fishery, and that the salmon and shad fisheries, and all other fisheries in rivers and the mouth of rivers, are hereby reserved exclusively for British fishermen.

Art. 19. It is agreed by the high contracting parties that British subjects shall have, in common with the citizens of the United States, the liberty, for the term of years mentioned in Art. 33 of this treaty, to take fish of every kind, except shell-fish, on the eastern sea-coast and shores of the United States north of the 39th parallel of north latitude, and on the shores of the several islands thereunto adjacent, and in the bays, harbors, and creeks of the said sea-coasts and shores of the United States, and of the said islands, without being restricted to any distance from the shore, with permission to land upon the said coasts of the United States and of the islands aforesaid, for the purpose of drying their nets and curing their fish: Provided that in so doing they do not interfere with the rights of private property, or with the fishermen of the United States in the peaceable use of any part of said coasts in their occupancy for the same purpose. It is understood that the above-mentioned liberty applies solely to the sea fishery, and that the salmon and shad fisheries, and all other fisheries in rivers and mouths of rivers, are hereby reserved exclusively for fishermen of the United States.

Art. 20. It is agreed that the places designated by the commissioners appointed under the first article of the treaty between the United States and Great Britain, concluded at Washington on June 5, 1854, upon the coasts of her Britannic Majesty's dominions and of the United States, as places reserved from the common right of fishing under that treaty, shall be regarded as in like manner reserved from the common right of fishing under the preceding articles. In case any question should arise between the governments of the United States and of her Britannic Majesty as to the common right of fishing in places not thus designated as reserved, it is agreed that a commission shall be appointed, to designate such places, and shall be constituted in the same manner, and have the same powers, duties, and authorities as the commission appointed under the said first article of the treaty of June 5, 1854.

Art. 21. It is agreed that, for the term of years mentioned in Art. 33 of this treaty, fish-oil and fish of all kinds, "except fish of the inland lakes and of the rivers falling into them, and except fish preserved in oil," being the produce of the fisheries of the United States, or of the Dominion of Canada, or of Prince Edward's Island, shall be admitted into each country, respectively, free of duty.

Art. 22. Inasmuch as it is asserted by the government of her Britannic Majesty that the privileges accorded to the citizens of the United States, under Art. 18 of this treaty, are of greater value than those accorded by Arts. 19 and 21 of this treaty to the subjects of her Britannic Majesty, and this assertion is not admitted by the government of the United States, it is further agreed that commissioners shall be appointed to determine, having regard to the privileges accorded by the United States to the subjects of her Britannic Majesty, as stated in Arts. 19 and 21 of this treaty, the amount of

any compensation which, in their opinion, ought to be paid by the government of the United States to the government of her Britannic Majesty, in return for the privileges accorded to the citizens of the United States under Art. 18 of this treaty; that any sum of money which the said commissioners may so award shall be paid by the United States government in a gross sum within twelve months after such award shall have been given.

Art. 23. The commissioners referred to in the preceding article shall be appointed in the following manner—that is to say: One commissioner shall be named by the President of the United States, one by her Britannic Majesty, and a third by the President and her Britannic Majesty conjointly; and, in case the third commissioner shall not have been so named within a period of three months from the date when this act shall take effect, then the third commissioner shall be named by the representative at London of his Majesty, the Emperor of Austria and King of Hungary. In case of the death, absence, or incapacity of any commissioner, or in the event of any commissioner omitting or ceasing to act, the vacancy shall be filled in the manner hereinbefore provided for making the original appointment, the period of three months in case of such substitution being calculated from the date of the happening of the vacancy. The commissioners named shall meet in the city of Halifax, in the province of Nova Scotia, at the earliest convenient period after they have been respectively named, and shall, before proceeding to any business, make and subscribe a solemn declaration that they will impartially and carefully examine and decide the matter referred to them, to the best of their judgment, and according to justice and equity, and such declaration shall be entered on the record of their proceedings. Each of the high contracting powers shall also name one person to attend the commission as his agent, to represent it generally in all matters connected with the commission.

Art. 24. The proceedings shall be conducted in such order as the commissioners appointed under Arts. 22 and 23 of this treaty shall determine. They shall be bound to receive such oral or written testimony as either government may present. If either party shall offer oral testimony, the other party shall have the right of cross-examination, under such rules as the commissioners shall prescribe. If in the case submitted to the commissioners either party shall have specified or alluded to any report or document in its own exclusive possession without annexing a copy, such party shall be bound, if the other party thinks proper to apply for it, to furnish that party with a copy thereof, and either party may call upon the other through the commissioners to produce the originals or certified copies of any papers adduced as evidence, giving in each instance such reasonable notice as the commissioners may require. The case on either side shall be closed within a period of six months from the date of the organization of the commission; and the commissioners shall be requested to give their award as soon as possible thereafter. The aforesaid period of six months may be extended for three months in case of a vacancy occurring among the commissioners under the circumstances contemplated in Art. 23 of this treaty.

Art. 25. The commissioners shall keep an accurate record and correct minutes, or notes, of all their proceedings, with the dates thereof, and may appoint and employ a secretary, and any other necessary officer or officers to assist them in the transaction of the business which may come before them. Each of the high contracting parties shall pay its own commissioner and agent or counsel; all other expenses shall be defrayed by the two governments in equal moieties.

Art. 26. The navigation of the river St. Lawrence, ascending and descending from the 45th parallel of north latitude, where it ceases to form the boundary between the two countries, from, to, and into the sea, shall forever remain free, and open for the purposes of commerce to the citizens of the United States, subject to any laws and regulations of Great Britain or of the Dominion of Canada, not inconsistent with such privilege of free navigation. The navigation of the rivers Yucan, Porcupine, and Stikine, ascending and descending from, to, and into the sea,

shall forever remain free and open for the purposes of commerce to the citizens of both powers, subject to any laws and regulations of either country within its own territory, not inconsistent with such privilege of free navigation.

Art. 27. The government of her Britannic Majesty engages to urge upon the government of the Dominion of Canada to secure to the citizens of the United States the use of the Welland, St. Lawrence, and other canals in the Dominion, on terms of equality with the inhabitants of the Dominion, and the government of the United States engages that the subjects of her Britannic Majesty shall enjoy the use of the St. Clair Flats Canal on terms of equality with the citizens of the United States, and further engages to urge upon the State governments to secure to the subjects of her Britannic Majesty the use of the several State canals connected with the navigation of the lakes or rivers traversed by or contiguous to the boundary-line between the possessions of the high contracting parties on terms of equality with the inhabitants of the United States.

Art. 28. The navigation of Lake Michigan shall, also, for the term of years mentioned in Art. 33 of this treaty, be free and open, for the purposes of commerce, to the subjects of her Britannic Majesty, subject to any laws and regulations of the United States, or of the States bordering thereon, not inconsistent with such privilege or free navigation.

Art. 29. It is agreed that, for the term of years mentioned in Art. 33 of this treaty, goods, wares, or merchandise, arriving at the ports of New York, Boston, and Portland, and any other ports of the United States, which have been or may from time to time be specially designated by the President of the United States and destined for her Britannic Majesty's possessions in North America, may be entered at the proper custom-house, and conveyed in transit, without the payment of duties, through the territory of the United States, under such rules, regulations, and conditions for the protection of the revenues as the government of the United States may from time to time prescribe, and under like rules, regulations, and conditions, goods, wares, or merchandise may be conveyed in transit, without the payment of duties, from such possessions through the territory of the United States for export from the said ports of the United States. It is further agreed that, for the like period, goods, wares, or merchandise, arriving at any of the ports of her Britannic Majesty's possessions in North America, and destined for the United States, may be entered at the proper custom-house and conveyed in transit, without the payment of duties, through the said possessions, under such rules and regulations and conditions for the protection of the revenue as the government of the said possessions may from time to time prescribe, and under like rules, regulations, and conditions, goods, wares, or merchandise may be conveyed in transit without payment of duties, from the United States, through said possessions to other places in the United States, or for export from ports in the said possessions.

Art. 30. It is agreed that for the term of years mentioned in Art. 33 of this treaty, subjects of her Britannic Majesty may carry in British vessels, without payment of duties, goods, wares, or merchandise, from one port or place within the territory of the United States, upon the St. Lawrence, the Great Lakes, and the rivers connecting the same, to another port or place, within the territory of the United States as aforesaid: Provided that a portion of such transportation is made through the Dominion of Canada by land-carriage and in bond, under such rules and regulations as may be agreed upon between the government of her Britannic Majesty and the government of the United States. Citizens of the United States may for the like period carry in United States vessels, without payment of duty, goods, wares, or merchandise, from one port or place within the possessions of her Britannic Majesty in North America to another port or place within the said possessions: Provided that a portion of such transportation is made through the territory of the United States by land-carriage, and in bond, under such rules and regulations as may be agreed upon between the government of the United States and the government of her Britannic Majesty. The government of

the United States further engages not to impose any export duties on goods, wares, or merchandise carried under this article through the territory of the United States, and her Britannic Majesty's government engages to urge the Parliament of the Dominion of Canada, and the legislatures of the other colonies, not to impose any export duties on goods, wares, or merchandise carried under this article. And the government of the United States may, in case such export duties are imposed by the Dominion of Canada suspend, during the period that such duties are imposed, the right of carrying granted under this article in favor of the subjects of her Britannic Majesty. The government of the United States may also suspend the right of carrying granted in favor of the subjects of her Britannic Majesty, under this article, in case the Dominion of Canada should at any time deprive the citizens of the United States of the use of the canals in said Dominion on terms of equality with the inhabitants of the Dominion, as provided in Art. 27.

Art. 31. The government of her Britannic Majesty further engages to urge upon the Parliament of the Dominion of Canada and the legislature of New Brunswick that no export or other duty shall be levied on lumber or timber of any kind cut on that portion of the American territory in the State of Maine, watered by the river St. John and its tributaries, and floated down that river to the sea, when the same is shipped to the United States from the province of New Brunswick; and in case any such export or other duty continues to be levied after the expiration of one year from the date of the exchange of the ratifications of this treaty, it is agreed that the government of the United States may suspend the right of carrying hereinbefore granted under Art. 30 of this treaty for such period as such export or other duty may be levied.

Art. 32. It is further agreed that the provisions and stipulations of Arts. 18 to 25 of this treaty, inclusive, shall extend to the colony of Newfoundland, so far as they are applicable. But, if the imperial Parliament, the legislature of Newfoundland, or the Congress of the United States shall not embrace the colony of Newfoundland in their laws enacted for carrying the foregoing articles into effect, then this article shall be of no effect; but the omission to make provision, by law, to give it effect, by either of the legislative bodies aforesaid, shall not in any way impair any other articles of this treaty.

Art. 33. The foregoing articles, 18 to 25, inclusive, and Art. 30 of this treaty, shall take effect as soon as the laws required to carry them into operation shall have been passed by the imperial Parliament of Great Britain, by the Parliament of Canada, and by the legislature of Prince Edward's Island, on the one hand, and by the Congress of the United States on the other. Such assent having been given, the said articles shall remain in force for the period of ten years from the date at which they may come into operation; and further, until the expiration of two years after either of the high contracting parties shall have given notice to the other of its wish to terminate the same; each of the high contracting parties being at liberty to give such notice to the other at the end of the said period of ten years, or at any time afterward.

THE NORTHERN BOUNDARY.

Art. 34. Whereas it was stipulated by Art. 1, of the treaty concluded at Washington on June 15, 1846, between the United States and her Britannic Majesty, that the line of boundary between the territory of the United States and those of her Britannic Majesty, from the point of the 49th parallel of north latitude up to which it had already been ascertained, should be continued westward along the said parallel of north latitude to the middle of the channel which separates the continent from Vancouver's Island, and thence southerly along the middle of the said channel, and of Fuca Strait to the Pacific Ocean; and whereas the commissioners appointed by the two high contracting parties to determine that portion of the boundary which runs southerly through the middle of the channel aforesaid were unable to agree upon the same; and whereas the government of her Britannic Majesty claims that such boundary-line should, under the terms of the treaty above recited, be run through the Rosario Straits, and the government of

the United States claims that it should be run through the Canal De Haro, it is agreed that the respective claims of the government of her Britannic Majesty and of the government of the United States shall be submitted to the arbitration and award of his Majesty the Emperor of Germany, who, having regard to the abovementioned article of the said treaty, shall decide thereupon, finally and without appeal, which of those claims is most in accordance with the true interpretation of the treaty of June 15, 1846.

Art. 35. The award of his Majesty the Emperor of Germany shall be considered as absolutely final and conclusive, and full effect shall be given to such award, without any objection, evasion, or delay whatsoever. Such decision shall be given in writing, and dated. It shall be in whatsoever form his Majesty may choose to adopt. It shall be delivered to the representatives or other public agents of the United States and of Great Britain, respectively, who may be actually at Berlin, and shall be considered as operative from the day of the date of the delivery thereof.

Art. 36. The written or printed case of each of the two parties, accompanied by the evidence offered in support of the same, shall be laid before his Majesty the Emperor of Germany within six months from the date of the exchange of the ratification of this treaty, and a copy of such case and evidence shall be communicated by each party to the other through their respective representatives at Berlin. The high contracting powers may include in the evidence to be considered by the arbitrator such documents, official correspondence, and other official or public statements bearing on the subject of the reference as they may consider necessary to the support of their respective cases. After the written or printed case shall have been communicated by each party to the other, each party shall have the power of drawing up and laying before the arbitrators a second and definite statement, if it think fit to do so, in reply to the case of the other party so communicated, which definitive statement shall be so laid before the arbitrator, and also be mutually communicated, in the same manner as aforesaid by each party to the other within six months from the date of laying the first statement of the case before the arbitrator.

Art. 37. If in the case submitted to the arbitrator either party shall specify or allude to any report or document in its own exclusive possession, without annexing a copy, such party shall be bound, if the other party thinks proper to apply for it, to furnish that party with a copy thereof, and either party may call upon the other through the arbitrator to produce the originals or certified copies of any papers adduced as evidence, giving in each instance such reasonable notice as the arbitrator may require; and if the arbitrator should desire further elucidation or evidence with regard to any point contained in the statements laid before him, he shall be at liberty to require it from either party, and shall be at liberty to hear one counsel or agent for each party in relation to any matter, and at such time and in such manner as he may think fit.

Art. 38. The representatives or other public agents of the United States and Great Britain at Berlin, respectively, shall be considered as the agents of their respective governments to conduct their cases before the arbitrator, who shall be requested to address all his communications and give all his notices to such representatives, or other public agents who shall represent their respective governments generally, in all matters connected with arbitration.

Art. 39. It shall be competent to the arbitrator to proceed in the said arbitration, and all matters relating thereto, as and when he shall see fit, either in person or by a person or persons named by him for that purpose, either in the presence or absence of either or both agents, and either orally or by written discussion, or otherwise.

Art. 40. The arbitrator may, if he think fit, appoint a secretary or clerk for the purposes of the proposed arbitration, at such rate of remuneration as he shall think proper. This, and all other expenses of and connected with said arbitration, shall be provided for as hereinafter stipulated.

Art. 41. The arbitrator shall be requested to deliver, together with his award, an account of all the costs and expenses which

he may have been put to in relation to this matter, which shall forthwith be paid by the two governments in equal moieties.

Art. 42. The arbitrator shall be requested to deliver his award in writing as early as convenient after the whole case on each side shall be laid before him, and to deliver one copy thereof to each of the said agents.

Art. 43. The present treaty shall be duly ratified by the President of the United States of America, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate thereof, and by her Britannic Majesty; and the ratifications shall be exchanged, either at Washington or at London, within six months from the date hereof, or earlier if possible. In faith whereof, we, the respective plenipotentiaries, have signed this treaty, and have hereunto affixed our seals.

Done in duplicate at Washington the 8th day of May, in the year of our Lord 1871.

Washington, WILLIAM, military officer; born in Stafford county, Va., Feb. 28, 1752; son of Baily Washington, a kinsman of George Washington; entered the military service early in the Revolutionary War, becoming a captain in the Virginia line under Mercer. He was in the battle on Long Island, and was badly wounded at Trenton, but engaged in the battle at Princeton. Lieutenant-colonel of Baylor's dragoons, he was with them when surprised at Tappan. In 1779-80 he was very active in South Carolina, in connection with General Morgan, and for his valor at the Cowpens, Congress gave him thanks and a silver medal. In Greene's famous retreat Colonel Washington was very efficient; so, also, was he at the battles of Hobkirk's Hill and Eutaw Springs. At the latter place he was made prisoner and remained so until the close of the war, when he married and settled in Charleston, where he died, March 6, 1810.

SILVER MEDAL AWARDED TO WILLIAM WASHINGTON.

WILLIAM WASHINGTON

Washington and Jefferson College, an educational institution in Washington, Pa.; formerly two separate colleges, but united under an act of the legislature in 1865, the preparatory and scientific departments being located at Washington, and the sophomore, junior, and senior classes at Canonsburg, the former seat of Jefferson College. This arrangement proved undesirable, and in 1869 the whole institution was located in Washington, Pa. The college has grounds and buildings valued at over $450,000; endowment funds, $650,000; volumes in the library, 20,700; average number of faculty, 25; average student attendance, 400; number of graduates, over 4,340. Rev. James D. Moffat, D.D., president.

WASHINGTON AND LEE UNIVERSITY

Washington and Lee University, an educational institution in Lexington, Va. The nucleus of it was established in 1749 under the name of Augusta Academy, by which it was known till the Revolutionary War began, when its name was changed to Liberty Hall Academy. In 1780 the institution was removed to Lexington, when, in 1796, General Washington gave it 100 shares of stock in the James River Canal Company, and the name was changed to Washington College, and on the death of Gen. Robert E. Lee, in 1870, the name was again changed to its present one. Instruction was suspended during the Civil War; and the institution was reorganized in 1865 under the presidency of Gen. Robert E. Lee. The university has grounds and buildings valued at over $375,000; endowment funds, $870,000; volumes in the library, 50,000; average number of faculty, 42; average student attendance, 600; ordinary annual income, $100,000. George H. Denny, LL.D., Ph.D., president.

WASHINGTON AND THE NEWBURG ADDRESS

Washington and the Newburg Address.—The following is the full text of the NEWBURG ADDRESS (*q. v.*), together with Washington's reply to the officers of the army:

Gentlemen,—A fellow-soldier, whose interests and affections bind him strongly to you, whose past sufferings have been as great, and whose future fortunes may be as desperate as yours, would beg leave to add ess you. Age has its claims, and rank is not without its pretensions to advise; but, though unsupported by both, he flatters himself that the plain language of sincerity and experience will neither be unheard nor unregarded.

Like many of you, he loved private life, and left it with regret. He left it, determined to retire from the field with the necessity that called him to it, and not till then—not till the enemies of his country, the slaves of power, and the hirelings of injustice, were compelled to abandon their schemes, and acknowledge America as terrible in arms as she had been humble in remonstrance. With this object in view, he has long shared in your toils and mingled in your dangers. He has felt the cold hand of poverty without a murmur, and has seen the insolence of wealth without a sigh. But, too much under the direction of his wishes, and sometimes weak enough to mistake desire for opinion, he has till lately, very lately, believed in the justice of his country. He hoped that, as the clouds of adversity scattered, and as the sunshine of peace and better fortune broke in upon us, the coldness and severity of government would relax, and that more than justice, that gratitude, would blaze forth upon those hands which had upheld her in the darkest stages of her passage from impending servitude to acknowledged independence. But faith has its limits as well as temper, and there are points beyond which neither can be stretched without sinking into cowardice or plunging into credulity. This, my friends, I conceive to be your situation. Hurried to the very verge of both, another step would ruin you forever. To be tame and unprovoked when injuries press hard upon you is more than weakness; but to look up for kinder usage, without one manly effort of your own, would fix your character and show the world how richly you deserve those chains you broke. To guard against this evil, let us take a review of the ground upon which we now stand, and thence carry our thoughts forward for a monment into the unexplored field of expedient. After a pursuit of seven long years the object for which we set out is at length brought within our reach. Yes, my friends, that suffering courage of yours was active once—it has conducted the United States of America through a doubtful and a bloody war; it has placed her in the chair of independence, and peace returns again —to bless whom? A country willing to redress your wrongs, cherish your worth, and reward your services? A country courting your return to private life with tears of gratitude and smiles of admiration—longing to divide with you the independency which your gallantry has given, and those riches which your wounds have preserved? Is this the case?—or is it

WASHINGTON'S HEADQUARTERS AT NEWBURG.

rather a country that tramples upon your rights, disdains your cries, and insults your distresses? Have you not more than once suggested your wishes, and made known your wants, to Congress—wants and wishes which gratitude and policy should have anticipated rather than evaded? And have you not lately, in the meek language of entreating memorials, begged from their justice what you could no longer expect from their favor? How have you been answered? Let the letter which you are called to consider to-morrow reply.

If this, then, be your treatment while the swords you wear are necessary for the defence of America, what have you to expect from peace, when your voice shall sink, and your strength dissipate, by division—when those very swords, the in-

struments and companions of your glory, shall be taken from your sides, and no remaining mark of military distinction left but your wants, infirmities, and scars? Can you then consent to be the only sufferers by this revolution; and, retiring from the field, grow old in poverty, wretchedness, and contempt? Can you consent to wade through the vile mire of dependency, and owe the miserable remnant of that life to charity, which has hitherto been spent

ENTRANCE TO WASHINGTON'S HEADQUARTERS, NEWBURG.

in honor? If you can, go, and carry with you the jest of Tories and the scorn of Whigs; the ridicule, and what is worse, the pity, of the world. Go, starve, and be forgotten. But if your spirit should revolt at this—if you have sense enough to discover and spirit enough to oppose tyranny, under whatever garb it may assume, whether it be the plain coat of republicanism or the splendid robe of royalty—if you have yet learned to discriminate between a people and a cause, between men and principles—awake, attend to your situation, and redress yourselves. If the present moment be lost, every future effort is in vain, and your threats then will be as empty as your entreaties now.

I would advise you, therefore, to come to some final opinion upon what you can bear and what you will suffer. If your determination be in any proportion to your wrongs, carry your appeal from the justice to the fears of government. Change the milk-and-water style of your last memorial; assume a bolder tone, decent, but lively, spirited, and determined; and suspect the man who would advise to more moderation and longer forbearance. Let two or three men, who can feel as well as write, be appointed to draw up your last remonstrance; for I would no longer give it the suing, soft, unsuccessful epithet of memorial. Let it be represented, in language that will neither dishonor you by its rudeness nor betray you by its fears, what has been promised by Congress, and what has been performed; how long and how patiently you have suffered; how little you have asked, and how much of that little has been denied. Tell them that though you were the first, and would wish to be the last, to encounter danger, though despair itself can never drive you into dishonor, it may drive you from the field; that the wound, often irritated, and never healed, may at length become incurable; and that the slightest mark of malignity from Congress now must operate like the grave, and part you forever. That, in any political event, the army has its alternative; if peace, that nothing shall separate you from your arms but death; if war, that courting the auspices and inviting the directions of your illustrious leader, you will retire to some unsettled country, smile in your turn, and "mock when their fear cometh on." But let it represent also, that should they comply with the request of your late memorial, it would make you more happy, and them more respectable; that while war should continue, you would follow their standard into the field; and when it came to an end, you would withdraw into the shade of private life, and give the world another subject of wonder and applause—an army victorious over its enemies, victorious over itself.

GENERAL WASHINGTON'S SPEECH AT THE MEETING OF OFFICERS.

Gentlemen,—By an anonymous summons an attempt has been made to con-

vene you together; how inconsistent with the rules of propriety, how unmilitary, and how subversive of all order and discipline, let the good sense of the army decide. In the moment of this summons, another anonymous production was sent into circulation, addressed more to the feelings and passions than to the judgment of the army. The author of the piece is entitled to much credit for the goodness of his pen; and I could wish he had as much credit for the rectitude of his heart; for, as men see through different optics, and are induced by the reflecting faculties of the mind to use different means to attain the same end, the author of the address should have had more charity than to mark for suspicion the man who should recommend moderation and longer forbearance; or, in other words, who should not think as he thinks, and act as he advises.

But he had another plan in view, in which candor and liberality of sentiment, regard to justice, and love of country have no part; and he was right to insinuate the darkest suspicion to effect the blackest design. That the address was drawn with great art, and is designed to answer the most insidious purposes; that it is calculated to impress the mind with an idea of premeditated injustice in the sovereign power of the United States, and rouse all the resentments which must unavoidably flow from such a belief; that the secret mover of this scheme, whoever he may be, intended to take advantage of the passions while they were warmed by the recollection of past distresses, without giving time for cool, deliberate thinking, and that composure of mind which is so necessary to give dignity and stability to measures, is rendered too obvious, by the mode of conducting the business, to need other proofs than a reference to the proceedings.

Thus much, gentlemen, I have thought it incumbent on me to observe to you, to

INTERIOR OF WASHINGTON'S HEADQUARTERS, NEWBURG.

WASHINGTON AND HIS GENERALS AT NEWBURG.

show upon what principles I opposed the irregular and hasty meeting which was proposed to have been held on Tuesday last, and not because I wanted a disposition to give you every opportunity, consistent with your own honor and the dignity of the army, to make known your grievances. If my conduct, therefore, has not evinced to you that I have been a faithful friend to the army, my declaration of it at this time would be equally unavailing and improper. But, as I was among the first who embarked in the cause of our common country; as I have never left your side one moment, but when called from you on public duty; as I have been the constant companion and witness of your distresses, and not among the last to feel and acknowledge your merits; as I have ever considered my own military reputation as inseparably connected with that of the army; as my heart has ever expanded with joy when I have heard its praises, and my indignation has arisen when the mouth of detraction has been opened against it: it can scarcely be supposed, at this stage of the war, that I am indifferent to its interests. But how are they to be promoted? The way is plain, says the anonymous addresser. If war continues, remove into the unsettled country; there establish yourselves, and leave an ungrateful country to defend itself. But who are they to defend? Our wives, our children, our farms, and other property which we leave behind us? or, in this state of hostile preparation, are we to take the first two (the latter cannot be removed), to perish in the wilderness, with hunger, cold, and nakedness?

If peace takes place, never sheathe your sword, says he, until you have obtained full and ample justice. This dreadful alternative of either deserting our country in the extremest hour of her distress, or turning our arms against it, which is the apparent object, unless Congress can be compelled into instant compliance, has

something so shocking in it that humanity revolts at the idea. My God, what can this writer have in view by recommending such measures? Can he be a friend to the army? Can he be a friend to this country? Rather, is he not an insidious foe; some emissary, perhaps, in me to assign my reasons for this opinion as it would be insulting to your conception to suppose you stood in need of them. A moment's reflection will convince every dispassionate mind of the physical impossibility of carrying either proposal into execution. There might, gen-

VIEW FROM WASHINGTON'S HEADQUARTERS, NEWBURG.

from New York, plotting the ruin of both, by sowing the seeds of discord and separation between the civil and military powers of the continent? And what a compliment does he pay to our understandings when he recommends measures, in either alternative, impracticable in their nature?

But here, gentlemen, I will drop the curtain, because it would be as imprudent

COFFEE-POT AND PISTOL TAKEN FROM THE HESSIANS AT TRENTON (A NEWBURG RELIC).

tlemen, be an impropriety in my taking notice in this address to you, of an anonymous production; but the manner in which that performance has been introduced to the army, the effect it was intended to have, together with some other circumstances, will amply justify my observations on the tendency of that writing.

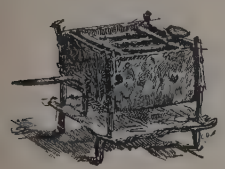
With respect to the advice given by the author, to suspect the man who should recommend moderate measures, I spurn it, as every man who regards that liberty and reveres that justice for which we contend undoubtedly must; for, if men are to be precluded from offering their sentiments on a matter which may involve the most serious and alarming consequences that can invite the consideration of mankind, reason is of no use to us. The freedom of speech may be taken away, and dumb and silent we may be led like sheep to the slaughter. I cannot in jus-

WASHINGTON'S CHAIR.

tice to my own belief, and what I have great reason to conceive is the intention of Congress, conclude this address without giving it as my decided opinion that that honorable body entertains exalted sentiments of the services of the army, and, from a full conviction of its merits

A RELIC OF BUNKER HILL, FOUND AT NEWBURG

and sufferings, will do it complete justice. That their endeavors to discover and establish funds for this purpose have been unwearied, and will not cease till they have succeeded, I have not a doubt; but, like all other large bodies, where there is a variety of different interests to reconcile, their determinations are slow. Why, then, should we distrust them; and, in consequence of that distrust, adopt measures which may cast a shade over that glory which has been so justly acquired, and tarnish the reputation of an army which is celebrated through all Europe for its fortitude and patriotism? And for what is this done? To bring the object we seek nearer? No; most certainly, in my opinion, it will cast it at a greater distance. For myself (and I take no merit for giving the assurance, being induced to it from principles of gratitude, veracity, and justice, and a grateful sense of the confidence you have ever placed in me), a recollection of the cheerful assistance and prompt obedience I have experienced from you under every vicissitude of fortune, and the sincere affection I feel for an army I have so long had the honor to command, will oblige me to declare in this public and solemn manner, that in the attainment of complete justice for all your toils and dangers, and in the gratification of every wish, so far as may be done consistently



CAMP BROILER USED BY WASHINGTON'S TROOPS.

with the great duty I owe to my country, and those powers we are bound to respect, you may freely command my services to the utmost extent of my abilities.

While I give you these assurances, and pledge myself in the most unequivocal manner to exert whatever abilities I am possessed of in your favor, let me entreat you, gentlemen, on your part, not to take any measures which, viewed in the calm light of reason, will lessen the dignity and sully the glory you have hitherto maintained. Let me request you to rely on the plighted faith of your country, and place a full confidence in the purity of the intentions of Congress, that, previous to your dissolution as an army, they will cause all your actions to be fairly liquidated, as directed in the resolutions which were published to you two days ago; and that they will adopt the most effectual measures in their power to render ample justice to you for your faithful and meritorious services. And let me conjure you, in the name of our common country, as you value your own sacred honor, as you respect the rights of humanity, and as you regard the military and national character of America, to express your utmost horror and detestation of the man who wishes, under any specious pretences, to overturn the liberties of our country; and who wickedly attempts to open the floodgates of civil discord, and deluge our rising empire in blood.

POINT OF CHEVAUX-DE-FRISE AND LINK OF CHAIN (A REVOLUTIONARY RELIC).

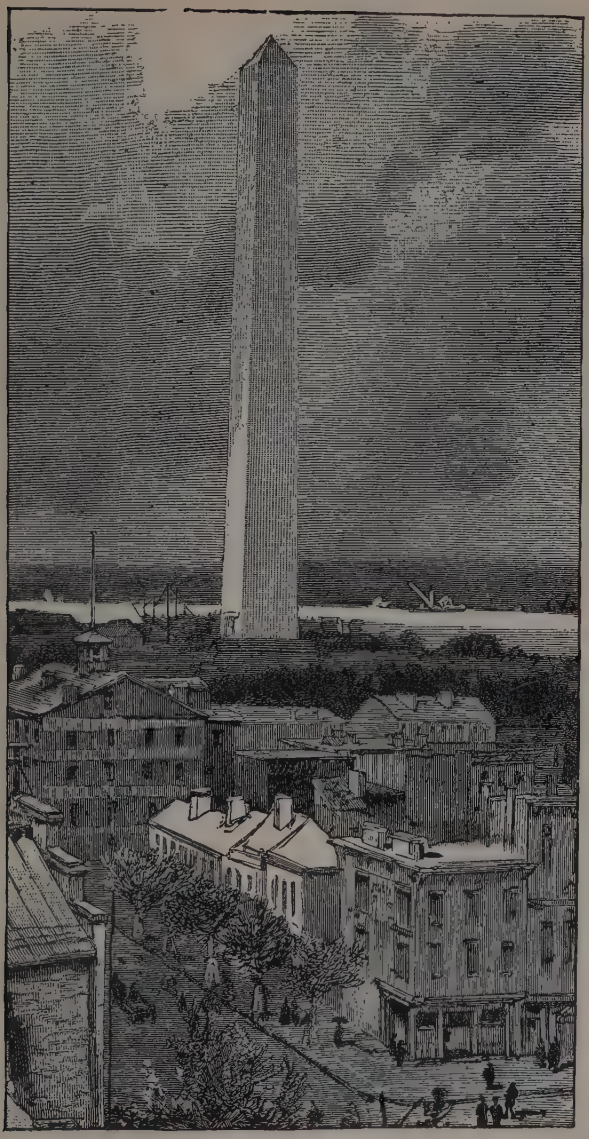
By thus determining and thus acting you will pursue the plain and direct road to the attainment of your wishes; you will defeat the insidious designs of our enemies, who are compelled to resort from open force to secret artifice; you will give one more distinguished proof of unexampled patriotism and patient vir-

tue rising superior to the pressure of the most complicated sufferings, and you will, by the dignity of your conduct, afford occasion for posterity to say, when speaking of the glorious example you have exhibited to mankind: "Had this day been wanting, the world had never seen the last stage of perfection to which human nature is capable of attaining."

KNIFE AND FORK USED BY ONE OF WASHINGTON'S SOLDIERS.

Washington Benevolent Societies, political organizations, which originated in Philadelphia soon after the declaration of war in 1812. The first organization was fully completed on Feb. 22, 1813, under the title of the "Washington Benevolent Society of Pennsylvania." Each member was required to sign the Constitution and the following declaration: "We, each of us, do hereby declare that we are firmly attached to the Constitution of the United States and to that of Pennsylvania; to the principles of a free republican government, and to those which regulated the public conduct of George Washington; that we will, each of us, to the best of our ability, aid, and, so far as may be consistent with our religious principles respectively, preserve the rights and liberties of our country against all foreign and domestic violence, fraud, and usurpation; and that, as members of the Washington Benevolent Society, we will in all things comply with its regulations, support its principles, and enforce its views." It was a federal association, and had attractive social and benevolent features. The funds of the society were used for the purposes of charity among its members and their families, and for other purposes which might be prescribed. They had anniversary dinners on Washington's birthday, so simple that men of moderate means might participate in them, the dinner, with beer and choice spirits, costing only seventy-five cents. In Philadelphia, the society built Washington Hall, on Third Street, between Walnut and Spruce. Similar societies were organized elsewhere. They rapidly multiplied during the war, but with the demise of the Federal party, during Monroe's administration, they disappeared.

Washington Monument. On Feb. 22, 1885, the Washington Monument was formally dedicated by Robert C. Winthrop, the man who laid its corner-stone in 1848. The first movement towards the erection of this monument was made as early as 1783, when the Continental Congress passed a resolution recommending the erection of an equestrian statue of Washington, supported by four marble pedestals showing the principal events in the war which he had successfully conducted. After his death, in December, 1799, the House and Senate passed a joint resolution for the erection of a monument under which his body should be placed; but Congress failed to provide for the execution of the work, and the matter was allowed to drop. In 1816 an unsuccessful effort was made by James Buchanan, then a young Congressman from Pennsylvania, to revive an interest in the monument which should lead to its construction. Twenty-five years later an association known as the "Washington Monument Society" was formed, and $87,000 was collected in sums of $1, each person so contributing being enrolled as a member of the society. The corner-stone was laid and the erection of the monument was begun July 4, 1848. The building progressed slowly until 1855, when, owing to the failure of the Senate to concur in the passage of an appropriation bill giving $200,000 to the enterprise, all work upon it ceased. The Civil War broke out, and the Washington Monument was for the time forgotten. In 1876 Senator Sherman introduced a resolution providing that whatever was returned from the government appropriation for the Centennial Exposition in Philadelphia should be refunded and appropriated to the completion of the Washington Monument. This resolution was amended by the appropriation committee of the House, and $1,000,000 was appropriated, to be paid in annual instal-



WASHINGTON MONUMENT.

ments of $30,000 each. A commission was appointed to examine the work already done, and the foundation was declared insufficient. A new foundation was accordingly constructed at a cost of nearly $100,000, and the work was pushed actively forward until its completion, nine years later, under the direction of Col. T. L. Casey, United States Engineers. The entire cost of the monument was about $1,500,000, of which amount nearly $300,000 was contributed by the "Washington Monument Association." Its base is 55 feet square—the base of the foundation being 106 feet square and 38 feet deep. Its height is 555 feet, being 30 feet greater than that of the cathedral at Cologne, and 75 feet greater than that of the Great Pyramid. It is built of Maryland marble lined with blue gneiss. Various stones contributed by the States are built into the interior lining. Including the foundation, the weight of the structure is nearly 82,000 tons. The top of the monument is protected by a cap made of aluminum, which is not affected by the elements. The ascent can be made by an elevator or by an iron stairway of nearly 900 steps. The thickness of the walls at the base is 15 feet, gradually lessening until at the top to 18 inches.

WASHINGTONIANA

Washingtoniana. Robert Dinwiddie, lieutenant-governor of Virginia, observing with anxiety and alarm the movements of the French on the frontiers of Pennsylvania, made a treaty with the Indian bands on the Monongahela River, in September, 1753, from whom he gained permission to build a fort at the junc-

tion of that river and the Alleghany, now Pittsburg. He also resolved to send a competent messenger to the nearest French post, with a letter demanding explanations, and the release and indemnification of the English traders whom the French had robbed and imprisoned. He chose for this delicate and hazardous service George Washington, then not twenty-two years of age. With three attendants, Washington left Williamsburg, Oct. 31, and, after journeying more than 400 miles (more than half the distance through a dark wilderness), encountering incredible hardships and dangers, amid snow and icy floods and hostile Indians, he reached the French post of Venango, Dec. 4, where he was politely received, and his visit was made the occasion of great conviviality by the officers of the garrison. He had been joined at Cumberland (Md.) by five others. The free use of wine disarmed the French of their prudence, and they revealed to their sober guest their design to permanently occupy the region they then had possession of. Washington perceived the necessity of quickly despatching his business and returning to Williamsburg; and after spending a day at Venango, he pushed forward to Le Bœuf, the headquarters of St. Pierre, the chief commander, who entertained him politely four days, and then gave him a written answer to Dinwiddie's remonstrance, enveloped and sealed. Washington retraced his perilous journey through the wilderness, and after an absence of eleven weeks he again stood in the presence of the governor (Jan. 16, 1754), with his message fulfilled to the satisfaction of all. Washington and his attendants had made such a minute examination of Fort Le Bœuf—its form, size, construction, cannons, and barracks, and the number of canoes in the stream—that he was enabled to construct a plan of it, which was sent to the British government. Washington kept a journal of his diplomatic expedition, and this, to arouse the enthusiasm of the people, was published, and was copied into every newspaper in the colonies. It was reprinted in London, and was regarded as a document of great importance, as unfolding the views of the French, and the first announcement of positive proof of their hostile acts in the disputed territory.

Disputes about rank caused a reference to General Shirley, then (1756) commander-in-chief of the British forces in America, and Washington was chosen by his fellow-officers to present the matter to the general. He set out for Boston, a distance of 500 miles, on horseback, Feb. 4, accompanied by two young officers, and stopped several days in the principal cities through which he passed. He was everywhere received with great respect, for the fame of his exploits in the field where Braddock fell had preceded him. In New York he was cordially entertained by Beverly Robinson, son of the speaker of the Virginia Assembly. Mrs. Robinson's sister, Mary Phillipse, was then at his house, and Washington was smitten with her charms. On his return from Boston he

WASHINGTON'S HOUSE IN FREDERICKSBURG.

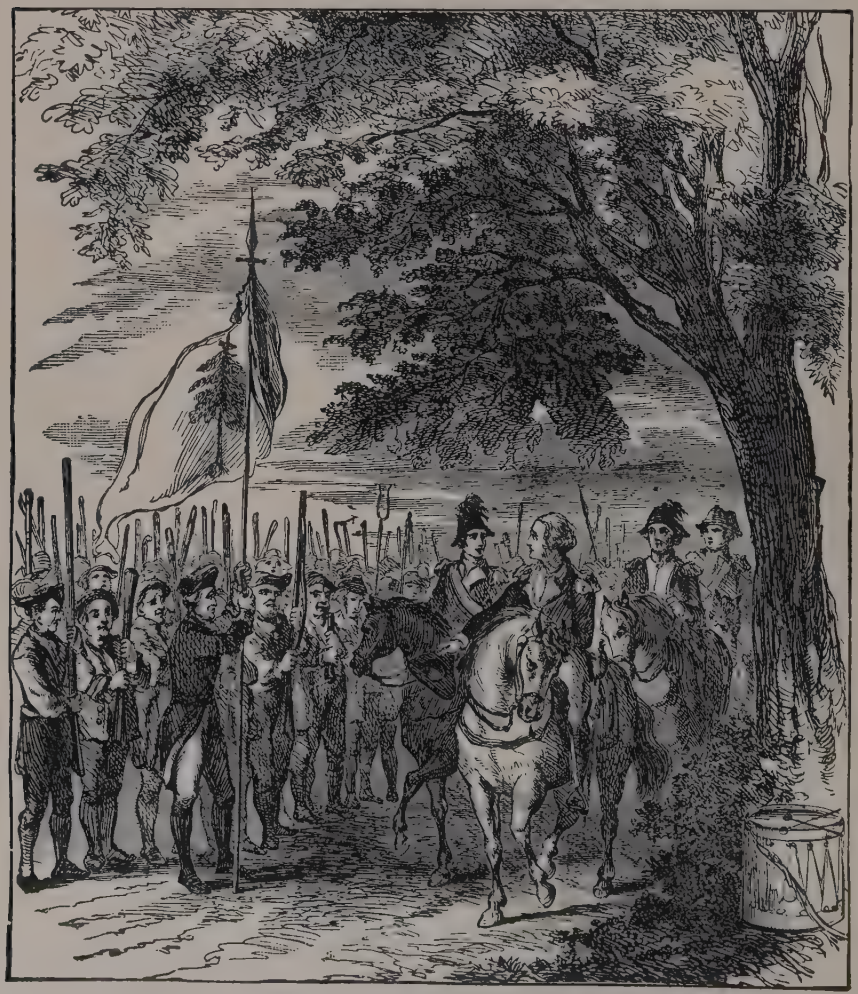
COLONEL WASHINGTON AND MRS. CUSTIS.

was again entertained at the mansion of Mr. Robinson, and he lingered as long in the company of Miss Phillipse as duty would allow. He wished to take her with him to Virginia as his bride at some time in the near future, but his natural modesty did not allow him to ask the boon of a betrothal. He left the secret with a friend, who kept him informed of everything of importance concerning the rich heiress of Phillipse Manor on the Hudson, but delayed to make the proposal of marriage. At length he was informed that he had a rival in Col. Roger Morris, his companion-in-arms under Braddock, who won the fair lady, and the tardy lover married the pretty little Martha Custis three years afterwards.

After the capture of Fort Duquesne, Washington took leave of the army at Winchester with the intention of quitting military life. He had been chosen a member of the House of Burgesses of Virginia, and was affianced to the charming widow of Daniel Parke Custis, who was about his own age—twenty-six years. They were wedded at the "White House," the residence of the bride, on Jan. 17, 1759. Then Washington took his seat in the Assembly at Williamsburg. At about the close of the honeymoon of Washington and his wife the speaker of the Assembly (Mr. Robinson), rising from his chair, thanked Washington for his public services. The young colonel, surprised and agitated, rose to reply, but could not summon words. His face crimsoned with confusion, when the accomplished speaker adroitly relieved him by saying, "Sit down, Colonel Washington; your modesty is equal to your valor, and that surpasses the power of any language I possess." The speaker was the father of Beverly Robinson, of New York, at whose house Washington had met and fell in love with his sister-in-law, Mary Phillipse.

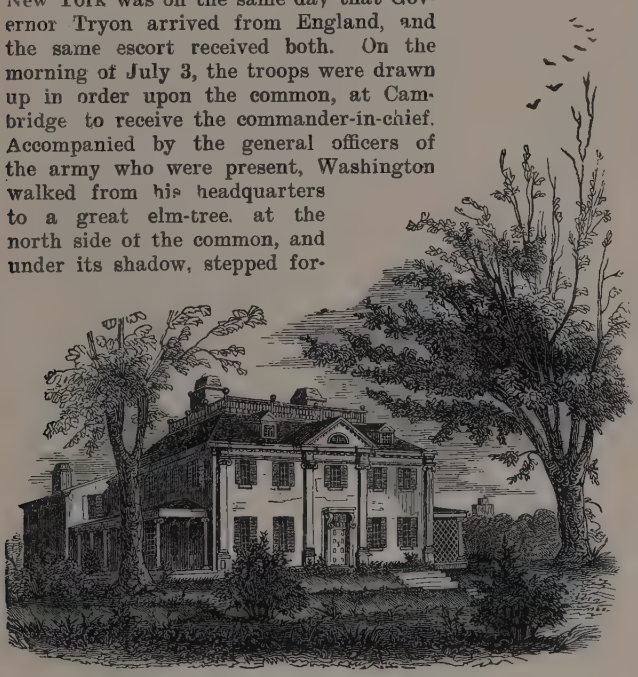
On June 15, 1775, Washington, then a member of Congress from Virginia, was nominated by Thomas Johnson, a member from Maryland, as commander-in-chief of the Continental army, and was chosen, unanimously, by ballot. On the opening of the Senate the next day, the president officially communicated to him a notice of his appointment. Washington immediately arose in his place and made the following reply: "Mr. President, though I am

truly sensible of the high honor done me in this appointment, yet I feel great distress from a consciousness that my abilities and military experience may not be equal to the extensive and important trust. However, as the Congress desires it, I will enter upon the momentous duty, and exert every power I possess in their service and for the support of the glorious cause. I beg they will accept my most cordial thanks for this distinguished testimony of their approbation. But, lest some unlucky event should happen, unfavorable to my reputation, I beg it may be remembered by every gentleman in the room that I this day declare, with the utmost sincerity, I do not think myself equal to the command I am honored with. As to pay, sir, I beg leave to assure the Congress that, as no pecuniary consideration could have tempted me to accept the arduous employment, at the expense of domestic ease and happiness, I do not wish to make any profit from it. I will keep an exact account of my expenses. These, I doubt not, they will discharge, and that



WASHINGTON TAKING COMMAND OF THE ARMY.

is all I desire." The Congress, by unanimous vote, resolved that they would maintain and assist the commander-in-chief, and adhere to him, with their lives and fortunes, in the cause of American liberty. The commander-in-chief of the Continental army left Philadelphia on June 21, and arrived at Cambridge on July 2. He was everywhere greeted with enthusiasm on the way. His arrival in New York was on the same day that Governor Tryon arrived from England, and the same escort received both. On the morning of July 3, the troops were drawn up in order upon the common, at Cambridge to receive the commander-in-chief. Accompanied by the general officers of the army who were present, Washington walked from his headquarters to a great elm-tree, at the north side of the common, and under its shadow, stepped forward a few paces, made some remarks, drew his sword, and formally took command of the Continental army. See ARMY (*Continental Army*).



WASHINGTON'S HEADQUARTERS AT CAMBRIDGE, 1775.

On March 25, 1776, when news of the British evacuation of Boston reached Congress, that body resolved that its thanks be presented to the commander-in-chief and the officers and soldiers under his command, "for their wise and spirited conduct in the siege and acquisition of Boston; and that a medal of gold be struck in commemoration of this great event and presented to his Excellency." This medal was nearly 2¾ inches in diameter. On one side was a profile head of Washington, with the Latin legend, "Georgio Washington, Svpremo Dvci Exercitvvm Asertori Libertatis Comitia Americana"—"The American Congress to George Washington, the Commander-in-chief of its Armies, the Assertor of Freedom." On the reverse, the device shows troops advancing towards a town; others marching towards the water; ships in view; General Washington in front, and mounted, with his staff, whose attention he is directing to the embarking enemy. The legend is, "Hostibus Primo Fugatis"—"The enemy for the first time put to flight." The exergue under the device, "Bostonium Recuperatum. xvii. martii. mdcclxxvi."—"Boston recovered, March 17, 1776."

On Dec. 27, 1776, the Congress, sitting in Baltimore, alarmed at the dangerous aspect of affairs, "Resolved, that General Washington shall be, and he is hereby, invested with full, ample, and complete powers to raise and collect together, in the most speedy and effectual manner, from any or all of these United States seventy-six battalions of infantry, in addition to those already voted by Congress; to appoint officers for the said battalions of infantry; to raise, officer, and equip 3,000 light-horse, three regiments of artillery, and a corps of engineers, and to establish their pay; to apply to any of the States for such aid of the militia as he shall judge necessary; to form such magazines or provisions, and in such places, as he shall think proper; to displace and appoint all officers under the rank of brigadier-general, and to fill up all vacancies in every other department in the American armies; to take, wherever he may be,

whatever he may want for the use of the army, if the inhabitants will not sell it, allowing a reasonable price for the same; to arrest and confine persons who refuse to take the Continental currency [not then beginning to depreciate], or are otherwise disaffected to the American cause; and return to the States of which they are citizens their names and the nature of their offences, together with the witnesses to prove them." The foregoing powers were vested in Washington for the term of six months ensuing the date of the resolution, unless sooner determined by Congress. These powers were almost equal to those of a Roman dictator. They were conferred before the Congress could possibly have heard of the brilliant victory at Trenton on the morning of the previous day.

Washington's lifeguard was organized in 1776, soon after the siege of Boston, while the American army was encamped in New York, on Manhattan Island. It consisted of a major's command — 180 men. Caleb Gibbs, of Rhode Island, was its first chief officer, and bore the title of captain commandant. He held that office until the close of 1779, when he was succeeded by William Colfax, one of his lieutenants. These were Henry P. Livingston, of New York; William Colfax, of New Jersey; and Benjamin Goymes, of Virginia. Colfax remained in command of the corps until the disbanding of the army in 1783. The members of the guard were chosen with special reference to their excellences—physical, moral, and mental—and it was considered a mark of peculiar distinction to belong to the commander-in-chief's guard. Their uniform consisted of a blue coat with white facings, white waistcoat and breeches, black half-gaiters, and a cocked hat with a blue and white feather. They carried muskets, and occasionally side-arms. Their motto was "Conquer or die." Care was taken to have all the States which supplied the Continental army with troops represented in the corps. Its numbers varied. During the last year of the war there were only sixty-five; when, in 1780, the army at Morristown was in

THE WASHINGTON MEDAL, BOSTON, MARCH 17, 1776.

close proximity to the enemy, it was increased from the original 180 to 250. The last survivor of Washington's lifeguard was Serg. Uzel Knapp, who died in New Windsor, N. Y., Jan. 11, 1857, when he was a little past ninety-seven years of age. He was a native of Stamford, Conn., and served in the Continental army from the beginning of the war until its close, entering the lifeguard at Morristown, N. J., in 1780. After his death Sergeant Knapp's body lay in state in Washington's headquarters at Newburg three days, and, in the presence of a vast assemblage of people, he was buried at the foot of the flag-staff near that mansion. Over his grave is a handsome mausoleum of brown freestone, made from a design by H. K. Brown, the sculptor. Schuyler Colfax, a grandson of the last commander of the guard, had in his possession a document containing the autograph signatures of the corps in February, 1783, fac-similes of which have been published.

Toryism was more rampant in the city of New York in the summer of 1776 than anywhere else on the continent. The Provincial Congress was timid, and Tryon, the royal governor, was active in fomenting disaffection from his marine retreat. Washington made his summer headquarters in New York at Richmond Hill, at the intersection of Charlton and Varick streets, and Tryon, on board the *Duchess of Gordon*, formed a plot for the uprising of the Tories in the city and in the lower valley of the Hudson to cut off all communication with the mainland, to fire the magazines, to murder Washington, his staff-officers, and other leaders of the American army, or to seize them and send them to England for trial on a charge of treason, and to make prisoners of the great body of the troops. The ramifications of the plot were extensive, and a large number of persons were employed. The mayor of New York (Mathews) was implicated in it, and even the lifeguard of Washington was tampered with. An Irishman named Hickey, of that guard, was employed to poison Washington. He tried to make the housekeeper at headquarters—the faithful daughter of Fraunce, the famous innkeeper—his accomplice. She feigned compliance. Hickey knew that Washington was fond of green pease, and he made an arrangement for her to have poison in a mess of them served at the table of the commander-in-chief. The maiden gave warning to Washington. Hickey put arsenic in the pease. She conveyed them to Washington, who declined to take any, but caused the immediate arrest of the faithless lifeguardsman, and he was hanged. The horrible plot was revealed, and traced to Tryon as its author.

WASHINGTON'S HEADQUARTERS AT NEW YORK.

Under the proclamation of the brothers Howe, 2,703 persons in New Jersey, 851 in Rhode Island, and 1,282 in the city of New York and the rural districts subscribed a declaration of fidelity to the British King. Just before the limited time for the operation of this proclamation expired, Lord George Germain issued orders to the Howes not to let "the undeserving escape that punishment which is due to their crimes, and which it will be expedient to inflict for the sake of example to futurity." At about the same time Washington issued a proclamation

from Morristown, N. J. (Jan. 25, 1777), in the name of the United States, that those who had accepted British protection "should withdraw within the enemy's lines, or take the oath of allegiance to the United States of America." There immediately arose "a conflict of sovereignties." Clark, a Representative in Congress from New Jersey, declared that an oath of allegiance to the United States was absurd before confederation. Washington had taken the broad ground, from the moment of the Declaration of Independence, that the thirteen States composed a common country under the title of the United States of America; but Congress and the people were not prepared to accept this broad national view. Each State assumed the right only to outlaw those of its inhabitants who refused allegiance to its single self, as if the Virginian owed fealty only to Virginia, or the Marylander to Maryland.

WASHINGTON'S HEADQUARTERS AT MORRISTOWN, N. J.

After the American victory at Trenton the whole country rang with the praises of Washington, and the errors of Congress in not heeding his advice in the construction of the army were freely commented upon. That body was now inferior in its material to the first and second Congresses, and was burdened with cliques and factions; and there were protests among the members, who shook their heads in disapprobation of the popularity and power with which Washington was invested. To a proposition to give him power to name generals, John Adams vehemently protested, saying: "In private life I am willing to respect and look up to him; in this House I feel myself to be the superior of General Washington." On Feb. 24, 1777, when mere "ideal reinforcements" were voted to Washington, after an earnest debate, in which "some of the New England delegates and one from New Jersey showed a willingness to insult him," they expressed an "earnest desire that he would not only curb and confine the enemy within their present quarters, but, by the divine blessing, totally subdue them before they could be reinforced." To this seeming irony Washington calmly responded: "What hope can there be of my effecting so desirable a work at this time? The whole of our number in New Jersey fit for duty is under 3,000." The resolution was carried by a bare majority of the States present—Virginia and four New England States. The jealous men were few; the friends and admirers were many. William Hooper, of North Carolina, wrote to Robert Morris: "When it shall be consistent with policy to give the history of that man [**Washington**] from his first introduction into our service; how often America has been rescued from ruin by the mere strength of his genius, conduct, and courage; encountering every obstacle that want of money, men, arms, ammunition, could throw in his way; an impartial world will say, with you, he is the greatest man on earth. Misfortunes are the elements in which he shines; they are the groundwork on which his picture appears to the greatest advantage. He rises superior to them all; they serve as forts to his fortitude, and as stimulants to bring

into view those great qualities which his modesty keeps concealed."

In the summer of 1777 Washington began to feel the malign influence of the intrigues of GEN. HORATIO GATES (*q. v.*) against him, such as Schuyler had endured. The same faction in Congress which favored Gates's pretensions in the case of Schuyler also favored his ambitious schemes for his elevation to the position of commander-in-chief of the American armies. After Gates had superseded Schuyler (August, 1777), that faction induced the Congress to lavish all their favors upon the former, the favorite of the New England delegation, and to treat Washington with positive neglect. They did not scruple to slight his advice and to neglect his wants. With unpatriotic querulousness some of the friends of Gates in Congress wrote and spoke disparagingly of Washington as a commander while he was on his march to meet Howe (August, 1777). John Adams, warped by his partiality for Gates, wrote, with a singular indifference to facts, concerning the relative strength of the two armies: "I wish the Continental army would prove that anything can be done. I am weary with so much insipidity. I am sick of Fabian systems. My toast is, 'A short and violent war.'" After the defeat of Wayne that followed the disaster at the Brandywine, the friends of Gates in Congress renewed their censures of Washington, and John Adams exclaimed, "O Heaven, grant us one great soul. One leading mind would extricate the best cause from that ruin which seems to await it." And after the repulse of the British before forts Mercer and Mifflin (October, 1777), Adams exclaimed: "Thank God, the glory is not immediately due to the commander-in-chief, or idolatry and adulation would have been so excessive as to endanger our liberties." After the surrender of Burgoyne the proud Gates insulted Washington by sending his report immediately to Congress instead of to the commander-in-chief, and was not rebuked; and he imitated the treasonable conduct of Lee by disobeying the orders of Washington to send troops (not needed there) from the Northern Department to assist in capturing Howe and his army or expelling them from Philadelphia. The powerful Gates faction in Congress sustained him in this disobedience, and caused legislation by that body which was calculated to dishonor the commander-in-chief and restrain his military operations. They forbade him to detach more than 2,500 men from the Northern army without first consulting Gates and Governor Clinton, and so making him subservient to his inferiors. Emboldened by the evident strength of his faction in Congress, Gates pursued his intrigues with more vigor, and his partisans there assured him that he would soon be virtual commander-in-chief, when, late in November, 1777, he was made president of a new board of war, which was vested with large powers, and by delegated authority assumed to control military affairs which properly belonged to the commander-in-chief. Gates found a fitting instrument in carrying forward the conspiracy in General Conway, who, it was rumored, was about to be appointed a major-general in the Continental army, to which appointment Washington made the most serious opposition, because of Conway's unfitness; also because it was likely to drive from the service some of the best generals. Conway heard of this opposition. His malice was aroused, and his tongue and pen were made so conspicuously active that he was considered the head and front of the conspiracy, which is known in history as "Conway's Cabal." He wrote anonymous letters to members of Congress and to chief magistrates of States, filled with complaints and false statements concerning the character of Washington, in which the late disasters to the American arms were charged to the incapacity and timid policy of the commander-in-chief. He also wrote forged letters as if from the pen of Washington. He did his best to sow the seeds of discontent among the officers of the army, and caused some of them to write flattering letters to Gates, and so fed his hopes of having the chief command. Members of Congress joined in this letter-writing in disparagement of the chief. A delegate from Massachusetts (Mr. Lovell) in a letter to Gates said, after threatening Washington with "the mighty torrent of public clamor and vengeance": "How different your conduct and your fortune!

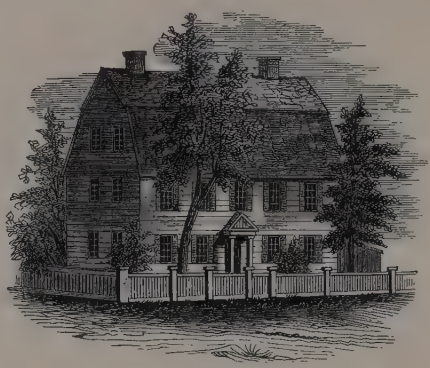
This army will be totally lost unless you come down and collect the virtuous band who wish to fight under your banner." And Dr. Benjamin Rush, of Philadelphia, in an anonymous letter to Patrick Henry, after declaring that the army at Valley Forge had no general at its head, said: "A Gates, a Lee, or a Conway would in a few weeks render them an irresistible body of men. Some of the contents of this letter ought to be made public, in order to awaken, enlighten, and alarm our country." Henry treated the anonymous letter with contemptuous silence, and sent it to Washington. Rush's handwriting betrayed him. Conway had written to Gates concerning Washington: "Heaven has been determined to save your country, or a weak general and bad counsellors would have ruined it." When these words reached Washington, he let Conway know the fact. A personal interview ensued, during which Conway justified his words and offered no apology. He boasted of his defiance of the commander-in-chief, and was commended by Gates, Mifflin, and others. The Gates faction in Congress procured Conway's appointment as inspector-general of the army, with the rank of major-general, and made him independent of the chief. The conspirators hoped these indignities would cause Washington to resign, when his place might be filled by Gates. Then the conspiracy assumed another phase. Without the knowledge of Washington the board of war devised a winter campaign against Canada, and gave the command to Lafayette. It was a trick of Gates to detach the marquis from Washington. It failed. Lafayette was summoned to York to receive his commission from Congress. There he met Gates, Mifflin, and others, members of the board of war, at table. Wine circulated freely, and toasts abounded. At length the marquis, thinking it time to show his colors, said: "Gentlemen, I perceive one toast has been omitted, which I will now propose." They filled their glasses, when he gave, "The commander-in-chief of the American armies." The coldness with which that toast was received confirmed Lafayette's opinion respecting the men around him, and he was disgusted. The conspirators, finding they could not use the marquis, abandoned the expedition. So, also, was the conspiracy abandoned soon afterwards. Some of Gates's New England friends became tired of him. Conway, found out, was despised, and left the army. He quarrelled with General Cadwallader and fought a duel with him. Conway was wounded, and, expecting to die, wrote an apologetic letter to Washington, deploring the injury he had attempted to do him. He recovered and returned to France.

When the conspiracy to deprive Washington of the chief command of the army was fully ripe, a day was secretly chosen when a committee of Congress should be appointed to arrest Washington at Valley Forge. At that time there was a majority of the friends of the conspirators in Congress (then sitting at York, Pa.), because of the absence of the New York delegation. Only Francis Lewis and Col. William Duer were at York. The latter was very ill. Lewis, having been informed of the designs of the conspirators, sent a message to Duer. The latter asked his physician whether he could be removed to the court-house, where Congress was in session. "Yes," said the doctor, "but at the risk of your life." "Do you mean that I would expire before reaching the place?" asked Duer. "No," said the physician, "but I will not answer for your life twenty-four hours afterwards." "Very well," responded Duer, "prepare a litter." It was done, and Duer was carried to the floor of Congress. The arrival of Gouverneur Morris, of the New York delegation, at the same time, satisfied the conspirators that they would be defeated, and they gave up the undertaking.

On Sept. 17, 1777, the Continental Congress, expecting to be obliged to fly from Philadelphia, again invested Washington with almost dictatorial powers, to last for sixty days. He was authorized to suspend misbehaving officers; to fill all vacancies; to take provisions and other necessaries for the army, wherever he could find them within 70 miles of his headquarters, paying the owners therefor, or giving certificates for the redemption of which the public faith was pledged; and to remove and secure for the benefit of the owners all goods which might prove serviceable to the public. On Dec. 30 these powers were extended to April 10, 1778

Through the exertions of General Lafayette, who went to France in 1779, arrangements were made with Louis XVI. to send to the aid of the struggling Americans a French land and naval force. The French troops were to be placed under the command of Lieutenant-General the Count de Rochambeau. In order to prevent any clashing of military authority, General Washington, who was to be supreme commander of the allied armies, was created by the King a lieutenant-general of France, that he might be on an official equality with Rochambeau, who was commanded to serve under Washington. This was a wise arrangement. The commission granted to Washington by the French monarch was brought over by Lafayette on his return to America. The ships and troops speedily followed. In the following summer Washington contemplated the aspect of public affairs with great anxiety and even alarm. The French fleet and army were blockaded at Newport, and the commander-in-chief was doubtful whether his own army could be kept together for another campaign. He was, therefore, exceedingly anxious to strike a decisive blow. He proposed to Rochambeau an attack on New York, but that was thought too hazardous without a superior naval force. Letters were sent to the French admiral in the West Indies, entreating assistance, and, in September, Washington proceeded to Hartford to hold an appointed personal conference there with Rochambeau. They met on Sept. 21. Rochambeau was accompanied by Admiral Ternay, commander of the French fleet at Newport. The conclusion was that the season was too far advanced for the allies to perform anything of importance, and, after making some general arrangements for the next campaign, Washington returned to West Point, on the Hudson. It was during this absence from camp that the treason of Arnold was revealed. Washington met Rochambeau a second time at Hartford. It was on May 21, 1781. Their meeting was celebrated by discharges of cannon. After partaking of refreshments, the generals and suites rode to Wethersfield, a few miles below Hartford, escorted by a few private gentlemen, and, at the house of Joseph Webb, where Washington was lodged, a conference was held. An agreement was then made for the French army to march to the Hudson River as speedily as possible.

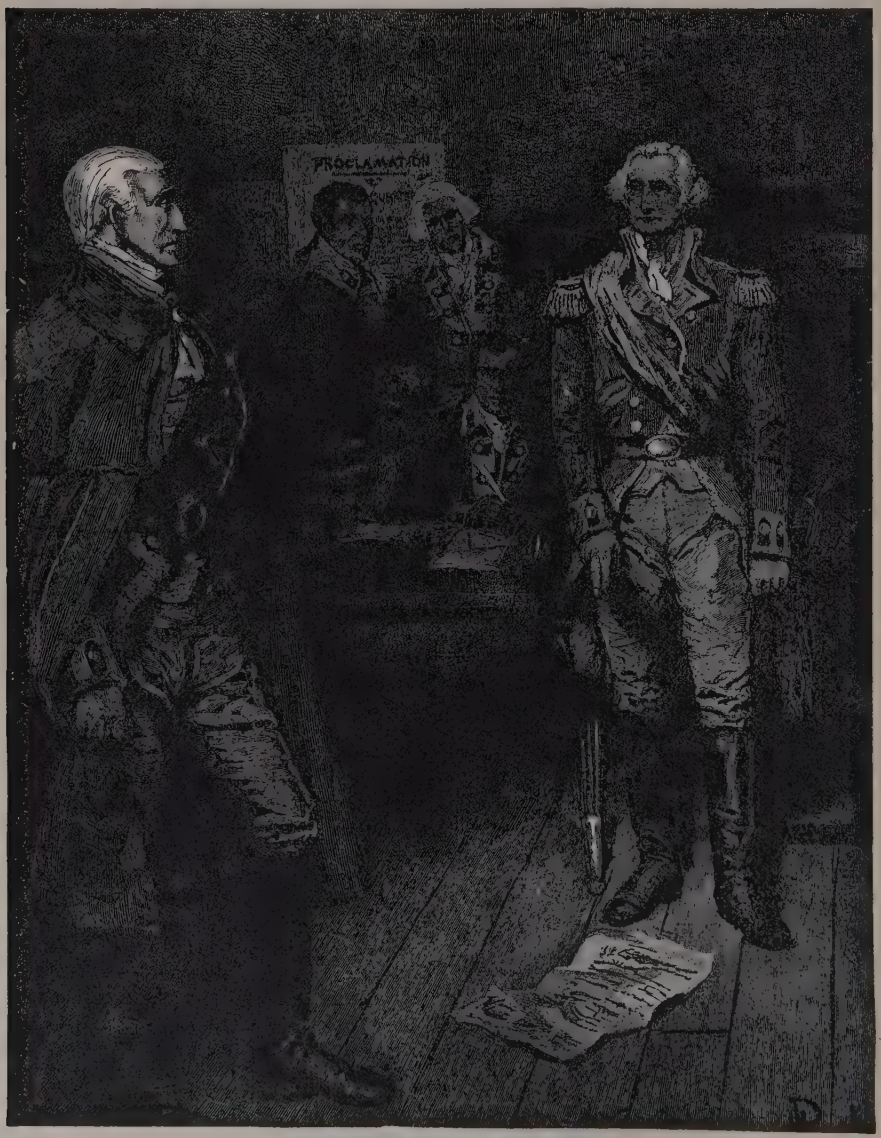
The earliest celebration of Washington's birthday found on record occurred in



THE WEBB HOUSE.

Richmond, Va., Feb. 11 (O. S.), 1782. The *Virginia Gazette, or the American Advertiser*, made the following record four days after the event: "Tuesday last, being the birthday of his Excellency, General Washington, our illustrious commander-in-chief, the same was commemorated here with the utmost demonstrations of joy." The event was celebrated at Talbot Courthouse, Md., the next year. Leading citizens assembled at Cambridge, where a public dinner was provided, at which the following regular toasts were drunk: "1. General Washington—long may he live!—the boasted hero of liberty; 2. Congress; 3. Governor and State of Maryland; 4. Louis XVI.—the protector of the rights of mankind; 5. Continental army; 6. Maryland line; 7. May trade and navigation flourish; 8. The seven United Provinces [Holland], our allies; 9. The Count de Rochambeau and French army; 10. May the union between the powers in alliance ever continue on the basis of justice and equality; 11. May the friends of freedom prove the sons of virtue; 12. Conversion to the unnatural sons of America; 13. May the Union of the American States be perpetual." The day was celebrated in New York in 1784. It was celebrated there and in other places on Feb. 11, each year, until 1793, when the day was changed to the 22d to adapt it to the new style.

With returning peace, the prospects of the Continental army, about to be disbanded, appeared very gloomy. For a long time neither officers nor private soldiers had received any pay, for the treasury was empty, and there appeared very little assurance that its condition would be improved. There was wide-spread discontent in the army, and also wide-spread distress throughout the country. Contemplating the inherent weakness of the new government, many were inclined to consider it a normal condition of the republican form, and wished for a stronger one, like that of Great Britain. This feeling became so manifest in the army that



WASHINGTON REFUSING A DICTATORSHIP.

Colonel Nicola, a foreigner by birth, and of weighty character, commanding a Pennsylvania regiment, wrote a reprehensible letter to Washington in May, 1782, in which, professing to speak for the army, he urged the necessity of a monarchy to secure an efficient government and the rights of the people for the Americans. He proposed to Washington to accept the headship of such a government, with the title of King, and assured him that the army would support him. Nicola received from the patriot a stern rebuke. "If I am not deceived in the knowledge of myself," he wrote, "you could not have found a person to whom your schemes are more disagreeable." If there was then a budding conspiracy to overthrow the inchoate republic, it was effectually crushed in the germ.

On June 8, 1783, Washington addressed a circular letter to the governor of each of the United States, which was (like his Farewell Address, issued thirteen years afterwards) an earnest plea for union. In this paternal and affectionate address, the commander-in-chief of the armies stated four things which he deemed to be essential to their well-being, and even to their very existence—namely, "An indissoluble union of the States under one general head; a sacred regard to public justice; the adoption of a proper peace establishment, and the prevalence of that pacific policy and friendly disposition among the people of the United States which would induce them to forget their local prejudices and politics, to make those mutual concessions which are requisite to the general prosperity, and, in some instances, to sacrifice their individual advantages to the interests of the community." "These," he said, "are the pillars on which the glorious fabric of our independence and national character must be supported." The commander-in-chief requested each governor to whom the address was sent to lay it before his legislature at its next session, that the sentiments might be considered as "the legacy of one who ardently wished, on all occasions, to be useful to his country, and who, even in the shade of retirement, would not fail to implore the divine benediction upon it."

On Dec. 4, 1783, Washington assembled his officers who were near in the large public room of Fraunce's Tavern, corner of Broad and Pearl streets, New York, to exchange farewells with them. After

FRAUNCE'S TAVERN.

the officers had assembled Washington entered the room, and, taking a glass of wine in his hand, said, "With a heart full of love and gratitude, I now take leave of you. I most devoutly wish that your latter days may be as prosperous and happy as your former ones have been glorious and honorable." Having tasted the wine, he continued, "I cannot come to each of you to take my leave, but shall be obliged to you if each will come and take me by the hand." The scene was touching and impressive. While their cheeks were suffused with tears Washington kissed each of his beloved companions-in-arms on the forehead. Then the commander-in-chief left the room, and, passing through a corps of light infantry, walked to Whitehall Ferry, followed by a vast procession of citizens. At 2 P.M. he entered a barge and crossed the Hudson to Paulus's Hook (now Jersey City), on his way to the Congress at Annapolis.

After parting with his officers in New York, Washington stopped at Philadelphia, where he deposited in the office of the comptroller an account of his expenses during the war, amounting to (including that spent for secret service) $64,315. Then he went on to Annapolis, where the Congress was in session, and, at noon, Dec. 23, 1783, he entered the Senate chamber of the Maryland State-house, according to previous arrangements, and delivered to General Mifflin,

president of that body, his commission, which he had received from it in June, 1775. In so doing, the commander-in-chief delivered a brief speech, with much feeling. Mifflin made an eloquent reply, and closed by saying: "We join you in commending the interests of our dearest country to the protection of Almighty God, beseeching him to dispose the hearts and minds of its citizens to improve the opportunity afforded them of becoming a happy and respectable nation. And for you, we address to Him our earnest prayers that a life so beloved may be fostered with all His care; that your days may be as happy as they have been illustrious, and that He will give you that reward which the world cannot give." Washington and his wife set out for Mount Vernon on the day before Christmas, where he was welcomed back to private life by the greetings of his family and flocks of colored servants.

WASHINGTON RESIGNING HIS COMMISSION.

On Aug. 7, 1783, the Continental Congress, sitting at Princeton, resolved unanimously "That an equestrian statue of General Washington be erected at the place where the residence of Congress shall be established." The matter was referred to a committee consisting of Messrs. Arthur Lee, Ellsworth, and Mifflin, to prepare a plan. The committee reported the same day "That the statue be of bronze; the general to be represented in a Roman dress, holding a truncheon in his right hand, and his head encircled with a laurel wreath. The statue to be supported by a marble pedestal, on which are to be represented, in basso-relievo, the following principal events of the war, in which General Washington commanded in person, viz.: the evacuation of Boston, the capture of the Hessians at Trenton, the battle at Princeton, the action at Monmouth, and the surrender at Yorktown. On the upper part of the front of the pedestal to be engraved as follows: 'The United States, in Congress assembled, ordered this statue to be erected in the year of our Lord 1783, in honor of George Washington, the illustrious commander-in-chief of the armies of the United States of America during the war which vindicated and secured their liberty, sovereignty, and independence.'" It was further resolved that the statue should be made by the best artist in Europe, under the direction of the United States minister at Versailles (Benjamin Franklin), and that the best resemblance of General Washington that could be procured should be sent to the minister, together with "the fittest description of the events which are to be the subject of the basso-

relievo." Happily for historic truth, that statue of Washington "in a Roman dress" was never executed. Washington died on Dec. 14, 1799, and on the 23d

THE STATE-HOUSE, ANNAPOLIS, MD.

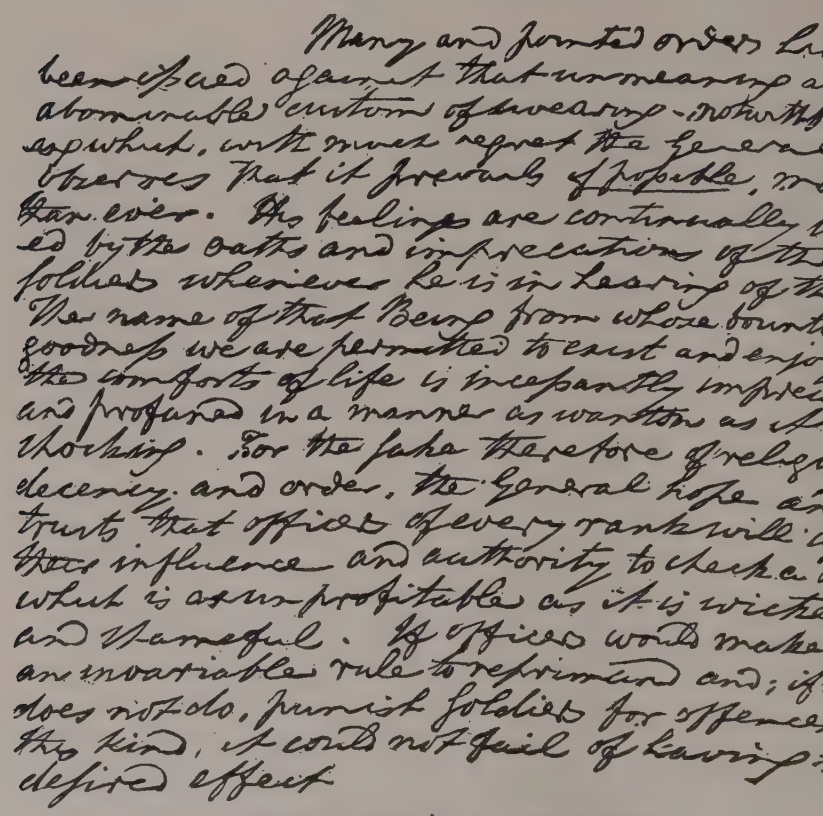
Congress adopted a joint resolution that a marble monument should be erected to the memory of Washington at the national capital. Early in the session of Congress (1799–1800) the question of erecting a monument in accordance with the resolves at his death was discussed. It was proposed to erect a marble mausoleum of a pyramidal shape, with a base 100 feet square. This was objected to by many members opposed to his administration, who thought a simple slab sufficient, as history, they said, would erect a better monument. At the next session it was brought up, and reference was made to the resolve of Congress in 1783. The bill for a mausoleum finally passed the House, with an appropriation of $200,000. The Senate reduced the amount to $150,000. The House proposed other amendments, and the matter was allowed to rest indefinitely. Finally, in 1878, Congress made an appropriation for finishing an immense obelisk to the memory of Washington, begun by private subscriptions. Meanwhile Congress had caused an equestrian statue of bronze to be erected in a square at the national capital. The State of Virginia had also erected a monument surmounted by a bronze equestrian statue, at Richmond; and the citizens of New York caused an equestrian statue of bronze to be erected at Union Square, by Henry K. Brown, superior to any yet set up. In an order-book in the handwriting of Washington, which came into the possession of Prof. Robert W. Weir, instructor of drawing in the United States Military Academy, and which he deposited in the archives of the War Department at the national capital in the year 1873, may be found the famous order against profanity, written by the commander-in-chief's own hand:

The following is a list of the localities of the principal headquarters of Washington during the Revolutionary War; Craigie House, Cambridge (residence of the late Henry W. Longfellow), 1775–76; No. 180 Pearl Street and No. 1 Broadway, New York City, 1776; also Morton House (afterwards Richmond Hill), at the junction of Varick and Charlton streets; Roger Morris's house, Harlem Heights, New York, 1776; the Miller House, near White Plains, Westchester co., N. Y., 1776; Schuyler House, Pompton, N. J., 1777; the Ring House, at Chad's Ford, on the Brandywine, and the Elmar House, Whitemarsh, 1777; the Potts House, Valley Forge, 1777–78; Freeman's Tavern, Morristown, N. J., 1777–78; the Brinkerhoff House, Fishkill, N. Y., 1778; at Fredericksburg (in Putnam county, N. Y.) 1779; Ford Mansion, Morristown, 1779–80; New Windsor-on-the-Hudson, 1779, 1780, and 1781; Hopper House, Bergen county,

N. J., 1780; Birdsall House, Peekskill, N. Y., 1780; De Windt House, at Tappan, 1780; Moore's house, Yorktown, Va., 1781; Hasbrouch House, Newburg, 1782, 1783; Farm-house at Rocky Hill, N. J., near Princeton, 1783; and Fraunce's Tavern, corner of Broad and Pearl streets, New York City, where he parted with his officers, 1783.

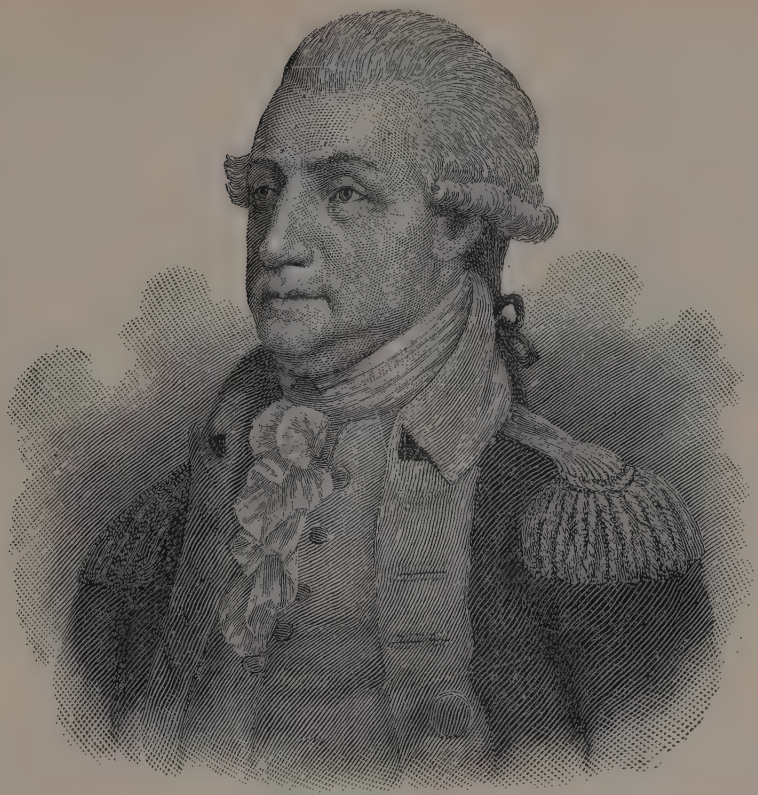
During his whole military career Washington never received the slightest personal injury. In the desperate battle on the Monongahela, where Braddock was mortally wounded, Washington was the only officer unhurt. To his mother he wrote: "I luckily escaped without a wound, though I had four bullets through my coat and two horses shot under me." To his brother John he wrote: "By the all-powerful dispensation of Providence I have been protected beyond all human probability or expectation. Death was levelling my companions on every side." In that battle an Indian chief singled Washington out for death by his rifle, but could not hit him. Fifteen years afterwards, when Washington was in the Ohio country, this chief travelled many miles to see the man who he and his followers, who tried to shoot him, were satisfied was under the protection of the Great Spirit. He said he had a dozen fair shots at him, but could not hit him.

John Parke Custis, an only son of Mrs. Washington, by a former husband, was aide to the commander-in-chief at Yorktown, at the beginning of the siege. Seized with camp-fever, he retired to Eltham, the seat of Colonel Bassett, a kinsman, where he died. At the conclusion of the ceremonies at the surrender of Cornwallis, Washington hastened to the bed-



Many and frequent orders have been issued against that unmeaning and abominable custom of swearing - notwithstanding which, with much regret the General observes that it prevails if possible, more than ever. His feelings are continually wounded by the oaths and imprecations of the soldiers wherever he is in hearing of them. The name of that Being from whose bounteous goodness we are permitted to exist and enjoy the comforts of life is incessantly imprecated and profaned in a manner as wanton as it is shocking. For the sake therefore of religion decency and order, the General hopes and trusts that officers of every rank will use their influence and authority to check a vice which is as unprofitable as it is wicked and unmanful. If Officers would make it an invariable rule to reprimand and; if that does not do, punish Soldiers for offences of this kind, it could not fail of having the desired effect

FAC-SIMILE OF WASHINGTON'S ORDER AGAINST PROFANITY.

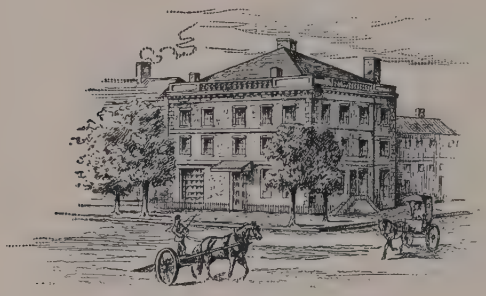


WASHINGTON IN 1789 (From Savage's portrait).

side of his dying step-son. He was met at the door by Dr. Craik, who told him that all was over. The chief bowed his head, and, giving vent to his sorrow by a flood of tears, he turned to the weeping widow — mother of four children — and said: "I adopt the two younger children as my own." These were Eleanor Parke Custis and George Washington Parke Custis, the former three years of age and the latter six months.

Washington as President.—Presidential electors were chosen by the people in the autumn of 1788, who met in electoral college on the first Wednesday in February, 1789, and chose the President and Vice-President. His election was announced to him by Charles Thomson, who had been sent to Mount Vernon for the purpose, with a letter from John Langdon, *pro tempore* president of the Senate. Thomson arrived on April 14, 1879. Washington accepted the office, and towards evening the same day rode rapidly to Fredericksburg to bid farewell to his aged mother. On the morning of the 16th, accompanied by Thomson, Colonel Humphreys, and his favorite body - servant, he began his journey towards New York, everywhere on the way greeted with demonstrations of reverence and affection. He was received at New York with great honors, and on April 30 he took the oath of office as President of the United States, administered by Robert R. Livingston, chancellor of the State of New York. The ceremony took place in the open outside gallery of the old City Hall, on the corner of Wall and Nassau streets, in the presence of both Houses of Congress and a vast multi-

tude of citizens. He was dressed in a plain suit of dark-brown cloth and white silk stockings, all of American manufacture. He never wore a wig. His ample hair was powdered and dressed in the fashion of the day, clubbed and ribboned. After taking the oath and kissing the sacred volume on which he had laid his hands, he reverently closed his eyes, and in an attitude of devotion said, "So help me, God!" The chancellor said, "It is done!" And then, turning to the people, he shouted, "Long live George Washington, the first President of the United States." The shout was echoed and re-echoed by the populace, when Washington and the members of Congress retired to the Senate chamber, where the President delivered his inaugural address. Then he and the members went in procession to St. Paul's Chapel, and there invoked the blessings of Almighty God upon the new government.



WASHINGTON'S HOUSE IN CHERRY STREET, NEW YORK, IN 1789.

Mr. Jefferson returned from France in the autumn of 1789, to take a seat in Washington's cabinet. He was filled with the French enthusiasm for republican ideas and hatred of monarchy, and he was chilled by the coldness of Washington, Adams, Hamilton, and others towards the cause of the French revolutionists. He became morbidly sensitive and suspicious, especially of Hamilton, regarding him as still a champion of a limited monarchy, for which he had expressed his preference in the convention that framed the Constitution. The consequence was, that bitter animosity grew up between them, which gave Washington great uneasiness, and they became the acknowledged leaders of two violently opposing parties—Federalists and Republicans. When Washington thought of retiring from the Presidency, at the close of his first term, Jefferson, who knew and valued his sterling patriotism, urged him to accept the office a second time. In a letter to him, he boldly avowed his belief that there was a conspiracy on foot to establish a monarchy in this country on the ruins of the republic, and pointed to the measures advocated by Hamilton as indicative of a scheme to corrupt legislators and people. Washington plainly told Jefferson that his suspicions about a monarchical conspiracy were unfounded, and that the people, especially of the great cities, were thoroughly attached to republican principles. But Jefferson was firm in his belief in a conspiracy, and, finally, criminations and recriminations having taken place in the public prints between the two secretaries, Hamilton charged Freneau's *Gazette*, which continually attacked the administration, with being the organ of Jefferson, edited by a clerk in his office.

WASHINGTON'S MANSION ON BROADWAY, NEW YORK, IN 1790.

The whole article was courteous in words, but extremely bitter in allusions. It produced an open rupture between the two secretaries, which Washington tried in

vain to heal in a letter to Jefferson. Jefferson, not long afterwards, left the cabinet, which Washington regretted.

Soon after the adjournment of Congress, March, 1791, Washington started on a three months' tour through the Southern States to make himself better acquainted with the people and their wants, and to observe the workings of the new system of government. He found that the opposition to the national Constitution so strongly shown in that region had assumed the character of opposition to the administration, and his reception was not so warm as it had been during his tour in New England. He stopped a few days on the Potomac, and selected the site for

THE PRESIDENT'S HOUSE IN PHILADELPHIA, 1794.

the national capital. His course lay through Virginia by way of Richmond into North Carolina, and by a curved route to Charleston, S. C. He extended it to Savannah, Ga., whence he ascended the right bank of the river to Augusta; and, turning his face homeward, passed through Columbia and the interior of North Carolina and Virginia. The journey of 1,887 miles was made with the same pair of horses.

Washington strongly desired to retire to private life at the close of his first term as President. The public more strongly desired his continuance in office. It was a critical time in the life of the republic, and he patriotically yielded to what seemed to be the demands of public interests, and became a candidate for re-election. The lines between the two political parties in the nation were now (1792) distinctly drawn. Opposition to the funding system was substituted for opposition to the Constitution. Both parties were in favor of the re-election of Washington, but divided on the question of who should be Vice-President. The opposition (Republicans) concentrated their votes on George Clinton; the Federalists supported John Adams. Washington received the unanimous vote of the electoral college, the members of that body then numbering 130. Adams received seventy-seven votes and Clinton fifty. The Kentucky electors voted for Jefferson for Vice-President, and one of the South Carolina votes was given to Aaron Burr.

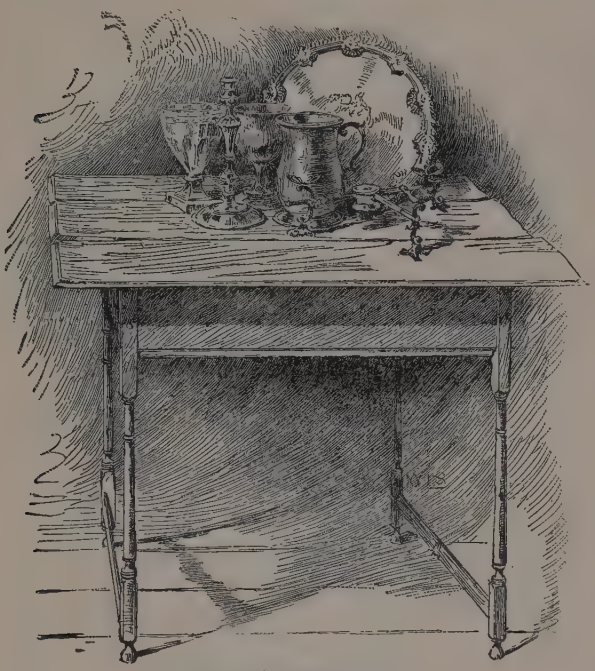
As soon as the news of the execution of Louis XVI., in Paris (January, 1793), reached England and the Continental powers, they coalesced against France, and war between them and the Revolutionists was announced. When the news of this event and the conduct of Genet reached Washington, at Mount Vernon, his mind was filled with anxiety. By the treaty of commerce, French privateers were entitled to a shelter in American ports—a shelter not to be extended to the enemies of France. By the treaty of alliance, the United States was bound, in express terms, to guarantee the French possessions in America. War between England and the United States was threatened in the aspect of events. Washington hastened to Philadelphia to consult with his cabinet. The questions were put: Whether a proclamation to prevent citizens of the United States interfering in the impending war should be issued? Should it contain a declaration of neutrality, or what? Should a minister from the French Republic be received? If so, should the reception be absolute or qualified? Was the United States bound to consider the treaties with France as applying to the present state of the parties, or might they be renounced or suspended? Suppose the treaties binding, what was the effect of the guarantee? Did it apply in the case of an offensive war? Was the

present war offensive or defensive on the part of France? Did the treaty with France require the exclusion of English ships-of-war, other than privateers, from the ports of the United States? Was it advisable to call an extra session of Congress? After careful discussion, it was unanimously concluded that a proclamation of neutrality should be issued, that a new French minister should be received, and that a special session of Congress was not expedient. There were some differences of opinion upon other points under discussion. A proclamation of neutrality was put forth April 22, 1793. It announced the disposition of the United States to pursue a friendly and impartial policy towards all of the belligerent powers; it exhorted and warned citizens of the United States to avoid all acts contrary to this disposition; declared the resolution of the government not only not to interfere on behalf of those who might expose themselves to punishment or forfeiture under the law of nations by aiding or abetting either of the belligerents, but to cause all such acts, done within the jurisdiction of the United States, to be prosecuted in the proper courts.

It was the wish of a majority of the American people that Washington should hold the office of chief magistrate for a third time. He yearned for the happiness of private life, and he would not consent; and in the fall of 1796 John Adams was elected President of the United States. Before the election took place, Washington issued (Sept. 17) a farewell address to the people. It was an earnest appeal to them to preserve the Union of the States as the only sure hope for the continuance of their liberties, and of the national life and prosperity. When the President had written out his address, he submitted it to Hamilton, Jay, and Madison for their criticism and suggestions. This was done. Several suggestions were made and a few verbal alterations. Unwilling to mar the draught which Washington had submitted to them, Hamilton made a copy, introducing a few grafts and making fewer prunings, and

THE PRESIDENT'S EQUIPAGE

returned it to the President. The latter adopted most of the suggestions, and, making a fair copy in his own handwriting, sent it to C. Claypoole, of Philadelphia, who published a daily paper, and in that it was first printed. The original manuscript of this address was in the possession of the late Robert Lennox, of New York. It was also published on a handsomely printed broadside, with a portrait of Washington at the head, drawn by Joseph Wright, and engraved by David Edwin.



WASHINGTON'S BREAKFAST-TABLE.

Washington's Farewell Address to the People of the United States.—Six months before the close of Washington's second term he refused to be a candidate for re-election. He issued the following farewell address, Sept. 17, 1796.

Friends and Fellow-citizens, — The period for a new election of a citizen to administer the executive government of the United States being not far distant, and the time actually arrived when your thoughts must be employed in designating the person who is to be clothed with that important trust, it appears to me proper, especially as it may conduce to a more distinct expression of the public voice, that I should now apprise you of the resolution I have formed, to decline being considered among the number of those out of whom a choice is to be made.

I beg you, at the same time, to do me the justice to be assured that this resolution has not been taken without a strict regard to all the considerations appertaining to the relation which binds a dutiful citizen to his country; and that, in withdrawing the tender of service, which silence in my situation might imply, I am influenced by no diminution of zeal for your future interest; no deficiency of grateful respect for your past kindness; but am supported by a full conviction that the step is compatible with both.

The acceptance of, and continuance hitherto in, the office to which your suffrages have twice called me, have been a uniform sacrifice of inclination to the opinion of duty, and to a deference for what appeared to be your desire. I constantly hoped that it would have been much earlier in my power, consistently with motives which I was not at liberty to disregard, to return to that retirement from which I had been reluctantly drawn. The strength of my inclination to do this, previous to the last election, had even led to the preparation of an address to declare it to you; but mature reflection on the then perplexed and critical posture of our affairs with foreign nations, and the unanimous advice of persons entitled to my confidence, impelled me to abandon the idea.

I rejoice that the state of your concerns,

external as well as internal, no longer renders the pursuit of inclination incompatible with the sentiment of duty or propriety; and am persuaded, whatever partiality may be retained for my services, that, in the present circumstances of our country, you will not disapprove my determination to retire.

The impressions with which I first undertook the arduous trust were explained on the proper occasion. In the discharge of this trust I will only say that I have with good intentions contributed towards the organization and administration of the government the best exertions of which a very fallible judgment was capable. Not unconscious in the outset of the inferiority of my qualifications, experience in my own eyes, perhaps still more in the eyes of others, has strengthened the motives to diffidence of myself; and every day the increasing weight of years admonishes me more and more that the shade of retirement is as necessary to me as it will be welcome. Satisfied that, if any circumstances have given peculiar value to my services, they were temporary, I have the consolation to believe that, while choice and prudence invite me to quit the political scene, patriotism does not forbid it.

In looking forward to the moment which is intended to terminate the career of my public life, my feelings do not permit me to suspend the deep acknowledgment of that debt of gratitude which I owe to my beloved country for the many honors it has conferred upon me; still more for the steadfast confidence with which it has supported me; and for the opportunities I have thence enjoyed of manifesting my inviolable attachment by services faithful and persevering, though in usefulness unequal to my zeal. If benefits have resulted to our country from these services, let it always be remembered to your praise, and as an instructive example in our annals, that under circumstances in which the passions, agitated in every direction, were liable to mislead, amid appearances sometimes dubious, vicissitudes of fortune often discouraging, in situations in which not unfrequently want of success has countenanced the spirit of criticism, the constancy of your support was the essential prop of the efforts, and a guarantee of the plans by which they were effected. Profoundly penetrated with this idea, I shall carry it with me to my grave, as a strong incitement to unceasing vows that Heaven may continue to you the choicest tokens of its beneficence; that your union and brotherly affection may be perpetual; that the free Constitution, which is the work of your hands, may be sacredly maintained; that its administration in every department may be stamped with wisdom and virtue; that, in fine, the happiness of the people of these States, under the auspices of liberty, may be made complete, by so careful a preservation and so prudent a use of this blessing, as will acquire to them the glory of recommending it to the applause, the affection, and adoption of every nation which is yet a stranger to it.

Here, perhaps, I ought to stop. But a solicitude for your welfare, which cannot end but with my life, and the apprehension of danger natural to that solicitude, urge me, on an occasion like the present, to offer to your solemn contemplation, and to recommend to your frequent review, some sentiments, which are the result of much reflection, of no inconsiderable observation, and which appear to me all-important to the permanency of your felicity as a people. These will be offered to you with the more freedom, as you can only see in them the disinterested warnings of a parting friend, who can possibly have no personal motive to bias his counsel. Nor can I forget, as an encouragement to it, your indulgent reception of my sentiments on a former and not dissimilar occasion.

Interwoven as is the love of liberty with every ligament of your hearts, no recommendation of mine is necessary to fortify or confirm the attachment.

The unity of government, which constitutes you one people, is also now dear to you. It is justly so; for it is a main pillar in the edifice of your real independence, the support of your tranquillity at home, your peace abroad; of your safety; of your prosperity; of that very liberty which you so highly prize. But as it is easy to foresee that from different causes and from different quarters much pains will be taken, many artifices employed, to weaken in your minds the conviction of this truth; as this is the point

in your political fortress against which the batteries of internal and external enemies will be most constantly and actively (though often covertly and insidiously) directed, it is of infinite moment that you should properly estimate the immense value of your national union to your collective and individual happiness; that you should cherish a cordial, habitual, and immovable attachment to it; accustoming yourselves to think and speak of it as of the palladium of your political safety and prosperity; watching for its preservation with jealous anxiety; discountenancing whatever may suggest even a suspicion that it can in any event be abandoned; and indignantly frowning upon the first dawning of every attempt to alienate any portion of our country from the rest, or to enfeeble the sacred ties which now link together the various parts.

For this you have every inducement of sympathy and interest. Citizens, by birth or choice, of a common country, that country has a right to concentrate your affections. The name of America, which belongs to you in your national capacity, must always exalt the just pride of patriotism, more than any appellation derived from local discriminations. With slight shades of difference, you have the same religion, manners, habits, and political principles. You have in a common cause fought and triumphed together; the independence and liberty you possess are the work of joint counsels and joint efforts, of common dangers, sufferings, and successes.

But these considerations, however powerfully they address themselves to your sensibility, are greatly outweighed by those which apply more immediately to your interest. Here every portion of our country finds the most commanding motives for carefully guarding and preserving the union of the whole.

The North, in an unrestrained intercourse with the South, protected by the equal laws of a common government, finds in the productions of the latter great additional resources of maritime and commercial enterprise and precious materials of manufacturing industry. The South in the same intercourse, benefiting by the agency of the North, sees its agriculture grow and its commerce expand. Turning partly into its own channels the seamen of the North, it finds its particular navigation invigorated; and, while it contributes in different ways to nourish and increase the general mass of the national navigation, it looks forward to the protection of a maritime strength, to which itself is unequally adapted. The East, in a like intercourse with the West, already finds, and in the progressive improvement of interior communications by land and water will more and more find, a valuable vent for the commodities which it brings from abroad, or manufactures at home. The West derives from the East supplies requisite to its growth and comfort, and, what is perhaps of still greater consequence, it must of necessity owe the secure enjoyment of indispensable outlets for its own productions to the weight, influence, and the future maritime strength of the Atlantic side of the Union, directed by an indissoluble community of interest as one nation. Any other tenure by which the West can hold this essential advantage, whether derived from its own separate strength or from an apostate and unnatural connection with any foreign power, must be intrinsically precarious.

While, then, every part of our country thus feels an immediate and particular interest in union, all the parts combined cannot fail to find in the united mass of means and efforts greater strength, greater resource, proportionably greater security from external danger, a less frequent interruption of their peace by foreign nations, and, what is of inestimable value, they must derive from union an exemption from those broils and wars between themselves, which so frequently afflict neighboring countries not tied together by the same governments, which their own rivalships alone would be sufficient to produce, but which opposite foreign alliances, attachments, and intrigues would stimulate and embitter. Hence, likewise, they will avoid the necessity of those overgrown military establishments which, under any form of government, are inauspicious to liberty, and which are to be regarded as particularly hostile to republican liberty. In this sense it is that your Union ought to be considered as a main prop of your liberty, and that the love of the one ought to endear to you the preservation of the other.

These considerations speak a persuasive language to every reflecting and virtuous mind, and exhibit the continuance of the Union as a primary object of patriotic desire. Is there a doubt whether a common government can embrace so large a sphere? Let experience solve it. To listen to mere speculation in such a case were criminal. We are authorized to hope that a proper organization of the whole, with the auxiliary agency of governments for the respective subdivisions, will afford a happy issue to the experiment. It is well worth a fair and full experiment. With such powerful and obvious motives to union, affecting all parts of our country, while experience shall not have demonstrated its impracticability, there will always be reason to distrust the patriotism of those who in any quarter may endeavor to weaken its bands.

In contemplating the causes which may disturb our Union, it occurs as a matter of serious concern, that any ground should have been furnished for characterizing parties by geographical discriminations Northern and Southern, Atlantic and Western; whence designing men may endeavor to excite a belief that there is a real difference of local interests and views. One of the expedients of party to acquire influence within particular districts, is to misrepresent the opinions and aims of other districts. You cannot shield yourselves too much against the jealousies and heart-burnings which spring from these misrepresentations; they tend to render alien to each other those who ought to be bound together by fraternal affection. The inhabitants of our Western country have lately had a useful lesson on this head; they have seen, in the negotiation by the executive, and in the unanimous ratification by the Senate, of the treaty with Spain, and in the universal satisfaction at that event throughout the United States, a decisive proof how unfounded were the suspicions propagated among them of a policy in the general government and in the Atlantic States unfriendly to their interests in regard to the Mississippi; they have been witnesses to the formation of two treaties, that with Great Britain and that with Spain, which secure to them everything they could desire, in respect to our foreign relations, towards confirming their prosperity. Will it not be their wisdom to rely for the preservation of these advantages on the Union by which they were procured? Will they not henceforth be deaf to those advisers, if such there are, who would sever them from their brethren and connect them with aliens?

To the efficacy and permanency of your Union, a government for the whole is indispensable. No alliances, however strict, between the parts can be an adequate substitute; they must inevitably experience the infractions and interruptions which all alliances in all times have experienced. Sensible of this momentous truth, you have improved upon your first essay, by the adoption of a constitution of government better calculated than your former for an intimate union, and for the efficacious management of your common concerns. This government, the offspring of our own choice, uninfluenced and unawed, adopted upon full investigation and mature deliberation, completely free in its principles, in the distribution of its powers, uniting security with energy, and containing within itself a provision for its own amendment, has a just claim to your confidence and your support. Respect for its authority, compliance with its laws, acquiescence in its measures, are duties enjoined by the fundamental maxims of true Liberty. The basis of our political systems is the right of the people to make and to alter their constitutions of government. But the constitution which at any time exists, till changed by an explicit and authentic act of the whole people, is sacredly obligatory upon all. The very idea of the power and the right of the people to establish government presupposes the duty of every individual to obey the established government.

All obstructions to the execution of the laws, all combinations and associations, under whatever plausible character, with the real design to direct, control, counteract, or awe the regular deliberation and action of the constituted authorities, are destructive of this fundamental principle, and of fatal tendency. They serve to organize faction, to give it an artificial and extraordinary force; to put in the place of the delegated will of the nation, the will of a party, often a small but art-

ful and enterprising minority of the community; and, according to the alternate triumphs of different parties, to make the public administration the mirror of the ill-concerted and incongruous projects of fashion, rather than the organs of consistent and wholesome plans digested by common councils and modified by mutual interests.

However combinations or associations of the above description may now and then answer popular ends, they are likely, in the course of time and things, to become potent engines, by which cunning, ambitious, and unprincipled men will be enabled to subvert the power of the people, and to usurp for themselves the reins of government; destroying afterwards the very engines which have lifted them to unjust dominion.

Towards the preservation of your government, and the permanency of your present happy state, it is requisite, not only that you steadily discountenance irregular oppositions to its acknowledged authority, but also that you resist with care the spirit of innovation upon its principles, however specious the pretexts. One method of assault may be to effect, in the forms of the Constitution, alterations, which will impair the energy of the system, and thus to undermine what cannot be directly overthrown. In all the changes to which you may be invited, remember that time and habit are at least as necessary to fix the true character of governments as of other human institutions; that experience is the surest standard by which to test the real tendency of the existing constitution of a country; that facility in changes, upon the credit of mere hypothesis and opinion, exposes to perpetual change, from the endless variety of hypothesis and opinion; and remember, especially, that, for the efficient management of your common interests, in a country so extensive as ours, a government of as much vigor as is consistent with the perfect security of liberty is indispensable. Liberty itself will find in such a government, with powers properly distributed and adjusted, its surest guardian. It is, indeed, little else than a name, where the government is too feeble to withstand the enterprises of faction, to confine each member of the society within the limits prescribed by the laws, and to maintain all in the secure and tranquil enjoyment of the rights of person and property.

I have already intimated to you the danger of parties in the State, with particular reference to the founding of them on geographical discrimination. Let me now take a more comprehensive view, and warn you in the most solemn manner against the baneful effects of the spirit of party generally.

This spirit, unfortunately, is inseparable from our nature, having its root in the strongest passions of the human mind. It exists under different shapes in all governments, more or less stifled, controlled, or repressed; but in those of the popular form it is seen in its greatest rankness, and is truly their worst enemy.

The alternate domination of one faction over another, sharpened by the spirit of revenge, natural to party dissension, which in different ages and countries has perpetrated the most horrid enormities, is itself a frightful despotism. But this leads at length to a more formal and permanent despotism. The disorders and miseries which result, gradually incline the minds of men to seek security and repose in the absolute power of an individual; and sooner or later the chief of some prevailing faction, more able or more fortunate than his competitors, turns this disposition to the purposes of his own elevation, on the ruins of public liberty.

Without looking forward to an extremity of this kind (which nevertheless ought not to be entirely out of sight), the common and continued mischiefs of the spirit of party are sufficient to make it the interest and duty of a wise people to discourage and restrain it.

It serves always to distract the public councils, and enfeeble the public administration. It agitates the community with ill-founded jealousies and false alarms; kindles the animosity of one part against another, foments occasionally riot and insurrection. It opens the doors to foreign influence and corruption, which find a facilitated access to the government itself through the channels of party passions. Thus the policy and the will of one country are subjected to the policy and will of another.

There is an opinion that parties in free countries are useful checks upon the administration of the government, and serve to keep alive the spirit of liberty. This within certain limits is probably true, and in governments of a monarchical cast, patriotism may look with indulgence, if not with favor, upon the spirit of party. But in those of the popular character, in governments purely elective, it is a spirit not to be encouraged. From their natural tendency, it is certain there will always be enough of that spirit for every salutary purpose. And there being constant danger of excess, the effort ought to be, by force of public opinion, to mitigate and assuage it. A fire not to be quenched, it demands a uniform vigilance to prevent its bursting into a flame, lest, instead of warming, it should consume.

It is important, likewise, that the habits of thinking in a free country should inspire caution in those intrusted with its administration, to confine themselves within their respective constitutional spheres, avoiding in the exercise of the powers of one department to encroach upon another. The spirit of encroachment tends to consolidate the powers of all the departments in one, and thus to create, whatever the form of government, a real despotism. A just estimate of that love of power, and proneness to abuse it, which predominates in the human heart, is sufficient to satisfy us of the truth of this position. The necessity of reciprocal checks in the exercise of political power, by dividing and distributing it into different depositories, and constituting each the guardian of the public weal against invasions by the others, has been evinced by experiments ancient and modern, some of them in our country and under our own eyes. To preserve them must be as necessary as to institute them. If, in the opinion of the people, the distribution or modification of the constitutional powers be in any particular wrong, let it be corrected by an amendment in the way which the Constitution designates. But let there be no change by usurpation; for, though this, in one instance, may be the instrument of good, it is the customary weapon by which free governments are destroyed. The precedent must always greatly overbalance in permanent evil any partial or transient benefit which the use can at any time yield.

Of all the dispositions and habits which lead to political prosperity, religion and morality are indispensable supports. In vain would that man claim the tribute of patriotism who should labor to subvert these great pillars of human happiness, these firmest props of the duties of men and citizens. The mere politician, equally with the pious man, ought to respect and to cherish them. A volume could not trace all their connections with private and public felicity. Let it simply be asked, Where is the security for property, for reputation, for life, if the sense of religious obligation desert the oaths, which are the instruments of investigation in courts of justice? And let us with caution indulge the supposition that morality can be maintained without religion. Whatever may be conceded to the influence of refined education on minds of peculiar structure, reason and experience both forbid us to expect that national morality can prevail in exclusion of religious principle.

It is substantially true that virtue or morality is a necessary spring of popular government. The rule, indeed, extends with more or less force to every species of free government. Who that is a sincere friend to it can look with indifference upon attempts to shake the foundation of the fabric?

Promote, then, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge. In proportion as the structure of a government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened.

As a very important source of strength and security, cherish public credit. One method of preserving it is to use it as sparingly as possible; avoiding occasions of expense by cultivating peace, but remembering also that timely disbursements to prepare for danger frequently prevent much greater disbursements to repel it; avoiding likewise the accumulation of debt, not only by shunning occasions of expense, but by vigorous exertion in time of peace to discharge the debts which unavoidable wars may have occasioned, not ungenerously throwing upon posterity the burden which we ourselves ought to bear. The execution of these maxims belongs to

your representatives, but it is necessary that public opinion should co-operate. To facilitate to them the performance of their duty, it is essential that you should practically bear in mind that towards the payment of debts there must be revenue; that to have revenue there must be taxes; that no taxes can be devised which are not more or less inconvenient and unpleasant; that the intrinsic embarrassment, inseparable from the selection of the proper objects (which is always a choice of difficulties), ought to be a decisive motive for a candid construction of the conduct of the government in making it, and for a spirit of acquiescence in the measures for obtaining revenue which the public exigencies may at any time dictate.

Observe good faith and justice towards all nations; cultivate peace and harmony with all. Religion and morality enjoin this conduct; and can it be that good policy does not equally enjoin it? It will be worthy of a free, enlightened, and at no distant period a great nation, to give to mankind the magnanimous and too novel example of a people always guided by an exalted justice and benevolence. Who can doubt that in the course of time and things the fruits of such a plan would richly repay any temporary advantages which might be lost by a steady adherence to it? Can it be that Providence has not connected the permanent felicity of a nation with its virtue? The experiment, at least, is recommended by every sentiment which ennobles human nature. Alas! is it rendered impossible by its vices?

In the execution of such a plan, nothing is more essential than that permanent, inveterate antipathies against particular nations, and passionate attachments for others, should be excluded; and that, in place of them, just and amicable feelings towards all should be cultivated. The nation which indulges towards another an habitual hatred, or an habitual fondness, is in some degree a slave. It is a slave to its animosity or to its affection, either of which is sufficient to lead it astray from its duty and its interest. Antipathy in one nation against another disposes each more readily to offer insult and injury, to lay hold of slight causes of umbrage, and to be haughty and intractable when accidental or trifling occasions of dispute occur. Hence, frequent collisions, obstinate, envenomed, and bloody contests. The nation, prompted by ill-will and resentment, sometimes impels to war the government, contrary to the best calculations of policy. The government sometimes participates in the national propensity, and adopts through passion what reason would reject; at other times, it makes the animosity of the nation subservient to projects of hostility instigated by pride, ambition, and other sinister and pernicious motives. The peace often, sometimes perhaps the liberty, of nations has been the victim.

So likewise, a passionate attachment of one nation for another produces a variety of evils. Sympathy for the favorite nation, facilitating the illusion of an imaginary common interest in cases where no real common interest exists, and infusing into one the enmities of the other, betrays the former into a participation in the quarrels and wars of the latter, without adequate inducement or justification. It leads also to concessions to the favorite nation of privileges denied to others, which is apt doubly to injure the nation making the concessions, by unnecessarily parting with what ought to have been retained, and by exciting jealousy, ill-will, and a disposition to retaliate, in the parties from whom equal privileges are withheld. And it gives to ambitious, corrupted, or deluded citizens (who devote themselves to the favorite nation) facility to betray or sacrifice the interests of their own country without odium, sometimes even with popularity; gilding with the appearances of a virtuous sense of obligation, a commendable deference for public opinion, or a laudable zeal for public good, the base or foolish compliances of ambition, corruption, or infatuation.

As avenues to foreign influence in innumerable ways such attachments are particularly alarming to the truly enlightened and independent patriot. How many opportunities do they afford to tamper with domestic factions, to practise the arts of seduction, to mislead public opinion, to influence or awe the public councils! Such an attachment of a small or weak towards a great and powerful nation dooms the former to be the satellite of the latter.

Against the insidious wiles of foreign influence (I conjure you to believe me, fellow-citizens) the jealousy of a free people ought to be constantly awake, since history and experience prove that foreign influence is one of the most baneful foes of republican government. But that jealousy, to be useful, must be impartial; else it becomes the instrument of the very influence to be avoided, instead of a defence against it. Excessive partiality for one foreign nation, and excessive dislike of another, cause those whom they actuate to see danger only on one side, and serve to veil and even second the arts of influence on the other. Real patriots who may resist the intrigues of the favorite are liable to become suspected and odious; while its tools and dupes usurp the applause and confidence of the purpose, to surrender their interests.

The great rule of conduct for us, in regard to foreign nations, is, in extending our commercial relations, to have with them as little political connection as possible. So far as we have already formed engagements, let them be fulfilled with perfect good faith. Here let us stop.

Europe has a set of primary interests which to us have none, or a very remote relation. Hence she must be engaged in frequent controversies, the causes of which are essentially foreign to our concerns. Hence, therefore, it must be unwise in us to implicate ourselves, by artificial ties, in the ordinary vicissitudes of her politics, or the ordinary combinations and collisions of her friendships or enmities.

Our detached and distant situation invites and enables us to pursue a different course. If we remain one people, under an efficient government, the period is not far off when we may defy material injury from external annoyance; when we may take such an attitude as will cause the neutrality, we may at any time resolve upon, to be scrupulously respected; when belligerent nations, under the impossibility of making acquisitions upon us, will not lightly hazard the giving us provocation; when we may choose peace or war, as our interest, guided by justice, shall counsel.

Why forego the advantages of so peculiar a situation? Why quit our own to stand upon foreign ground? Why, by interweaving our destiny with that of any part of Europe, entangle our peace and prosperity in the toils of European ambition, rivalship, interest, humor, or caprice?

It is our true policy to steer clear of permanent alliances with any portion of the foreign world; so far, I mean, as we are now at liberty to do it; for let me not be understood as capable of patronizing infidelity to existing engagements. I hold the maxim no less applicable to public than to private affairs, that honesty is always the best policy. I repeat it therefore, let those engagements be observed in their genuine sense. But, in my opinion, it is unnecessary and would be unwise to extend them.

Taking care always to keep ourselves, by suitable establishments, on a respectable defensive posture, we may safely trust to temporary alliances for extraordinary emergencies.

Harmony, liberal intercourse with all nations, are recommended by policy, humanity, and interest. But even our commercial policy should hold an equal and impartial hand; neither seeking nor granting exclusive favors or preferences; consulting the natural course of things; diffusing and diversifying by gentle means the streams of commerce, but forcing nothing; establishing with powers so disposed, in order to give trade a stable course, to define the rights of our merchants, and to enable the government to support them, conventional rules of intercourse, the best that present circumstances and mutual opinion will permit, but temporary, and liable to be from time to time abandoned or varied, as experience and circumstances shall dictate; constantly keeping in view that it is folly in one nation to look for disinterested favors from another; that it must pay with a portion of its independence for whatever it may accept under that character; that, by such acceptance, it may place itself in the condition of having given equivalents for nominal favors, and yet of being reproached with ingratitude for not giving more. There can be no greater error than to expect or calculate upon real favors from nation to nation. It is an illusion which experience must cure, which a just pride ought to discard.

In offering to you, my countrymen, these

counsels of an old and affectionate friend, I dare not hope they will make the strong and lasting impression I could wish; that they will control the usual current of the passions, or prevent our nation from running the course which has hitherto marked the destiny of nations. But, if I may even flatter myself that they may be productive of some partial benefit, some occasional good; that they may now and then recur to moderate the fury of party spirit, to warn against the mischiefs of foreign intrigue, to guard against the impostures of pretended patriotism; this hope will be a full recompense for the solicitude for your welfare by which they have been dictated.

How far, in the discharge of my official duties, I have been guided by the principles which have been delineated, the public records and other evidences of my conduct must witness to you and to the world. To myself, the assurance of my own conscience is, that I have at least believed myself to be guided by them.

In relation to the still subsisting war in Europe, my proclamation of April 22, 1793, is the index of my plan. Sanctioned by your approving voice, and by that of your Representatives in both Houses of Congress, the spirit of that measure has continually governed me, uninfluenced by any attempts to deter or divert me from it.

After deliberate examination, with the aid of the best lights I could obtain, I was well satisfied that our country, under all the circumstances of the case, had a right to take, and was bound in duty and interest to take, a neutral position. Having taken it, I determined, as far as should depend upon me, to maintain it with moderation, perseverance, and firmness.

The considerations which respect the right to hold this conduct it is not necessary on this occasion to detail. I will only observe that, according to my understanding of the matter, that right, so far from being denied by any of the belligerent powers, has been virtually admitted by all.

The duty of holding a neutral conduct may be inferred, without anything more, from the obligation which justice and humanity impose on every nation in cases in which it is free to act, to maintain inviolate the relations of peace and amity towards other nations.

The inducements of interest for observing that conduct will best be referred to your own reflections and experience. With me a predominant motive has been to endeavor to gain time to our country to settle and mature its yet recent institutions, and to progress without interruption to that degree of strength and consistency which is necessary to give it, humanly speaking, the command of its own fortunes.

Though, in reviewing the incidents of my administration, I am unconscious of intentional error, I am nevertheless too sensible of my defects not to think it probable that I may have committed many errors. Whatever they may be, I fervently beseech the Almighty to avert or mitigate the evils to which they may tend. I shall also carry with me the hope that my country will never cease to view them with indulgence; and that, after forty-five years of my life dedicated to its service with an upright zeal, the faults of incompetent abilities will be consigned to oblivion, as myself must soon be to the mansions of rest.

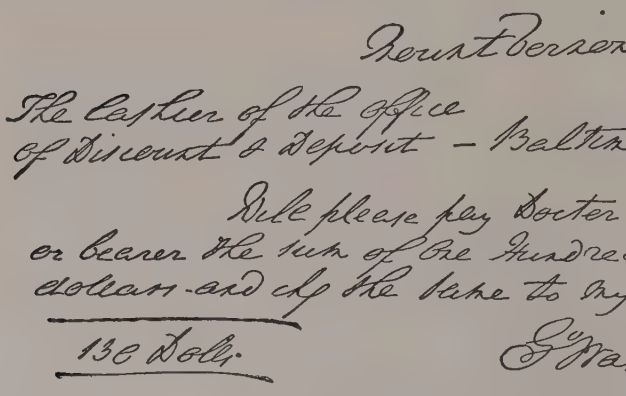
Relying on its kindness in this as in other things, and actuated by that fervent love towards it which is so natural to a man who views in it the native soil of himself and his progenitors for several generations, I anticipate with pleasing expectation that retreat in which I promise myself to realize, without alloy, the sweet enjoyment of partaking, in the midst of my fellow-citizens, the benign influence of good laws under a free government, the ever-favorite object of my heart, and the happy reward, as I trust, of our mutual cares, labors, and dangers.

The leaders of the Anti-Federal or Republican party became more and more violent in their censure of their opponents, and finally they indulged in personal abuse of Washington, charging him with venality and even with immorality. The chief vehicle of this abuse was a newspaper called the *Aurora*, published by Benjamin Franklin Bache, a grandson of Dr. Franklin. When Washington was about to retire from the Presidency in 1797 a writer in that journal said: "If ever a nation has been debauched by a man, the Ameri-

can nation has been debauched by Washington. If ever a nation has been deceived by a man, the American nation has been deceived by Washington. Let his conduct, then, be an example to future ages. Let it serve to be a warning that no man may be an idol. Let the history of the federal government instruct mankind that the mask of patriotism may be worn to conceal the foulest designs against the liberties of a people." On the day when he resigned the chair of state to John Adams (March 4, 1797), a writer in the *Aurora*, after declaring that he was no longer possessed of the "power to multiply evils upon the United States," said, "When a retrospect is taken of the Washingtonian administration for eight years, it is the subject of the greatest astonishment that a single individual should have cankered the principles of republicanism in an enlightened people, just emerged from the gulf of despotism, and should have carried his designs against the public liberty so far as to put in jeopardy its very existence. Such, however, are the facts, and with them staring us in the face this day ought to be a *jubilee* in the United States." They also republished spurious letters of Washington. These examples will suffice to show the malignity of party spirit in the early days of the republic, when even Washington was not spared from the lash of public abuse. It fell with even more severity on others. Both parties were guilty of the offence.

In 1798 Washington approved the war measures of the administration, and he was appointed (July 7) lieutenant-general and commander-in-chief of all the armies of the United States—raised and to be raised. The venerated patriot, then sixty-six years of age, responded with alacrity. "You may command me without reserve," he wrote to President Adams, qualifying the remark by the expressed desire that he should not be called into active service until the public need should demand it, and requesting the appointment of his friend, Alexander Hamilton, then forty-one years of age, acting commander-in-chief. Hamilton was appointed the first major-general, and, in November, Washington met his general officers in Philadelphia, and made arrangements for the complete organization of the regular forces on a war-footing. Washington believed from the beginning that the war-clouds would disperse, and not gather in a tempest, and events justified his faith. War was averted.

A pamphlet was published in London, in 1777, containing letters purporting to have been written by Washington, in the summer of 1776, to members of his family. These letters contained sentiments so totally at variance with his character and conduct that, whatever effect they may have had in England, they had none in this country, where he was known. In them Washington was made to deprecate the misguided zeal and rashness of Congress in declaring independence, and pushing the opposition to Great Britain to so perilous an extremity. In the preface it


Mount Vernon May 16th 1798
The Cashier of the Office
of Discount & Deposit – Baltimore
Pay please pay Doctor James Craik
or bearer the sum of One Hundred and thirty
dollars and chg the same to my account
130 Dolls.
G Washington

REDUCED FAC-SIMILE OF A CHECK DRAWN BY WASHINGTON.

was stated that, when Fort Lee was evacuated, General Washington's servant was left behind sick; that in his possession was a small portmanteau belonging to the general, in which, among other things of trifling value, were the drafts of letters to Mrs. Washington, her son (John Parke Custis), and his manager at Mount Vernon, Lund Washington, and that these had been transmitted to England by an officer into whose hands they had fallen. This fiction was contrived to deceive the public into a belief of their genuineness. It is well known that Washington was not at Fort Lee at the time of the surprise and evacuation, and that no servant of his nor a particle of his baggage fell into the hands of the enemy during the war. The pamphlet was republished by Rivington, in New York, and extensively circulated by the Tories, to injure the commander-in-chief. The author of these spurious epistles was never publicly known. The chief paid no attention to the publication, regarding it as beneath his notice. During his second Presidential term, party malignity was carried so far as to reprint the letters as genuine. Even then he did not notice them; but when he was about to retire from public life he wrote to the then Secretary of State (Timothy Pickering), under date of March 3, 1797, referring to the letters and the motives of their production, saying, "Another crisis in the affairs of America having occurred, the same weapon has been resorted to to wound my character and deceive the people." He then gave the dates and addresses of the letters, seven in number, and added, "As I cannot know how soon a more serious event may succeed to that which will this day take place (his retirement from office), I have thought it a duty which I owe to myself, to my country, and to truth, now to detail the circumstances above recited, and to add my solemn declaration that the letters herein described are a base forgery, and that I never saw or heard of them until they appeared in print."

Washington's Inauguration, CENTENNIAL OF. On April 29 and 30, 1889, the city of New York celebrated the centennial of the inauguration of George Washington as the first President of the United States. The occasion was also observed quite generally throughout the country, but nowhere in so imposing a manner as in the city in which that inauguration had taken place. The celebration was opened with a naval parade in the harbor on the morning of April 29. President Harrison, following as nearly as possible the same route of travel as President Washington, was conveyed by water from Elizabethport to New York, being escorted by a committee of governors, commissioners of State, and other distinguished personages. Upon his arrival in the East River he was transferred to a barge manned by a crew of ship-masters from the Marine Society of the Port of New York, and by them rowed to the shore. The crew of the barge that rowed President Washington from Elizabethport to the foot of Wall Street were members of the same society. A reception was afterwards held by the President and the governors of the States in the Equitable Building, and in the evening the Centennial Ball was given in the Metropolitan Opera-house. On April 30 a special service of thanksgiving was held in St. Paul's Chapel, being conducted in the same manner as that held in the same place on the day of Washington's inauguration 100 years before. Literary exercises then took place at the corner of Wall and Nassau streets, the scene of the first inauguration ceremonies. These exercises consisted of an invocation by the Rev. Dr. Richard S. Storrs, a poem by John Greenleaf Whittier, an oration by Chauncey M. Depew, and an address by President Harrison. The remainder of the day was given to a grand military parade, ending with a free open-air concert of vocal and instrumental music and a general illumination of the city. On May 1 a great industrial and civic parade, under command of Maj.-Gen. Daniel Butterfield as chief marshal, took place, and was witnessed by 500,000 spectators. The celebration was conducted with complete success throughout, and not only reflected great credit upon its managers, but accomplished great good in strengthening the patriotic sentiment of the people of New York and of the entire country.

Wasp, THE, an American sloop-of-war of eighteen guns, built in Washington, D. C., in 1806. On Oct. 13, 1812, under command of Capt. Jacob Jones, thorough-

ly manned and equipped, carrying sixteen 32-pounder carronades and two long 12-pounders, with two small brass cannon in her tops, she left the Delaware on a cruise. She was considered one of the fastest sailers in the service, and was furnished with 135 men and boys. She ran off towards the West Indies, and, on the night of Oct. 18, Jones saw several vessels, and ran parallel with them until the dawn, when he discovered that it was a fleet of armed merchant-vessels convoyed by the British sloop-of-war *Frolic*, Capt. T. Whinyates, mounting sixteen 32-pounder carronades, two long 6-pounders, and two 12-pounder carronades on her forecastle. She was manned by a crew of 108 persons. The *Frolic* took a position for battle so as to allow the merchantmen to escape during the fight. A severe engagement began at 10.30 A.M. Within five minutes the maintop-gallant mast of the *Wasp* was shot away and fell among the rigging, rendering a portion of it unmanageable during the remainder of the action. Three minutes afterwards her gaff and maintop-mast were shot away, and at twenty minutes from the opening of the engagement every brace and most of the rigging were disabled. Her condition was forlorn.

But while the *Wasp* was thus suffering, she had inflicted more serious injury to the hull of the *Frolic*. The two vessels gradually approached each other, fell foul, the bowsprit of the *Frolic* passing in over the quarter-deck of the *Wasp*, and forcing her bows up in the wind. This enabled the latter to give the *Frolic* a raking broadside with terrible effect. With wild shouts the crew of the *Wasp* now leaped into the entangling rigging, and made their way to the deck of the *Frolic*. But there was no one to oppose them. The last broadside had carried death and dismay into the *Frolic*, and almost cleared the deck of effective men. All who were able had escaped below to avoid the raking fire of the *Wasp*. The English officers on deck, nearly all of them bleeding from wounds, cast their swords in submission before Lieutenant Biddle, who led the boarding-party. He sprang into the rigging, and with his own hand struck the colors of the *Frolic*. The contest lasted forty-five minutes, and the aggregate loss of the *Frolic* in killed and wounded was ninety men. The *Wasp* had only five men killed and five wounded.

Jones placed Lieutenant Biddle in command of the *Frolic*, with orders to take her into Charleston, S. C., and when they were about to part company the British ship-of-war *Poictiers*, seventy-four guns, Capt. J. P. Beresford, bore down upon them. The *Wasp* and her prize were not in a condition to flee or fight, and within two hours after he had gained his victory Jones was compelled to surrender both vessels. They were taken to Bermuda, where the American prisoners were exchanged. The victory of the *Wasp* over the *Frolic* caused much exultation in the United States. Jones was lauded in speeches and songs. The authorities of New York voted him a sword and the freedom of the city. Congress voted him thanks and a gold medal, and appropriated $25,000 to Jones and his company as compensation for their loss of prize-money. A silver medal was given to each of his officers. The captain was promoted to the command of the frigate *Macedonian*, captured from the British by Decatur. The legislature of Pennsylvania voted Lieutenant Biddle thanks and a sword, and the leading men of Philadelphia gave him a silver urn. He was

THE BIDDLE URN.

shortly afterwards appointed to the command of the sloop-of-war *Hornet*. This victory was celebrated by songs, and also by caricatures. One of the songs became very popular, and was sung at

all public gatherings. In it occurred the following lines:

"The foe bravely fought, but his arms were all broken,
And he fled from his death-wound aghast and affrighted;
But the *Wasp* darted forward her death-doing sting,
And full on his bosom, like lightning alighted.
She pierced through his entrails, she maddened his brain,
And he writhed and he groaned as if torn with the colic;
And long shall John Bull rue the terrible day
He met the American *Wasp* on a *Frolic*."

A WASP ON A FROLIC.

Among the caricatures was one by Charles, of Philadelphia, under which were the following words:

"A *Wasp* took a *Frolic* and met Johnny Bull,
Who always fights best when his belly is full.
The *Wasp* thought him hungry by his mouth open wide,
So, his belly to fill, put a sting in his side."

On May 1, 1814, the *Wasp*, then under command of Capt. Johnston Blakeley, left the harbor of Portsmouth, N. H., and soon appeared in the chops of the British Channel, where she spread terror among the British merchant-ships and the people of the seaport towns. Painful recollections of the ravages of the *Argus* were revived. On the morning of June 28, while some distance at sea, the *Wasp* was chased by two vessels. They were soon joined by a third, which displayed English colors. In the afternoon, after much manœuvring, this vessel and the *Wasp* came to an engagement, which soon became very severe. The men of the stranger several times attempted to board the *Wasp*, but were repulsed. Finally, the crew of the *Wasp* boarded her antagonist, and in less than thirty minutes the latter was a prize to the American vessel. She proved to be the sloop-of-war *Reindeer*, Capt. William Manners, and was terribly shattered. Her captain and twenty-four others were killed and forty-two wounded. The *Wasp* was hulled six times, and her loss was five men killed and twenty-two wounded. Blakeley put his prisoners on board a neutral vessel and burned the *Reindeer*. For this capture Congress voted him a gold medal.

He arrived at L'Orient July 8, and on Aug. 27 departed for another cruise in the *Wasp*. On Sept. 1 she had a sharp engagement with the *Avon*, eighteen guns, Captain Arbuthnot, in intense darkness. At the end of thirty minutes the antagonist of the *Wasp* ceased firing. "Have you surrendered?" inquired Blakeley. He was answered by a few shots, when he gave the *Avon* another broadside, followed by the same question, which was answered in the affirmative, and an officer was about to leave the *Wasp* to take possession of the prize. Just then another vessel was seen astern, rapidly approaching; then another and another, and Blakeley was compelled to abandon the prize so nearly in his possession. The vessel that first came to the assistance of the *Avon* was the *Castilian*, eighteen guns. The *Avon* was so much shattered in the conflict that she sank almost immediately. Her people were rescued by their friends on the other vessels. The *Wasp* continued her course, capturing several prizes. Near the Azores she captured (Sept. 21) the *Atlanta*, a valuable prize that he sent home in command of Midshipman (afterwards Commodore) D. Geisinger. On Oct. 9 the *Wasp* was spoken by a Swedish bark making her way towards the Spanish main. She was never heard of after-

JOHNSTON BLAKELEY REI P. FAED. AM. NAV. WASP DUX
EHEU BIS VICTOR PATRIA TUA TE LUGET PLAUDITQ.
INTER WASP NAV. AMERI.
ET REINDEER NAV. ANG.
DIE XXVIII JUNIUS
MDCCCXIV.

BLAKELEY'S MEDAL.

wards, nor those who were then on board of her. She and all her people perished in some unknown solitude of the sea.

Watauga Commonwealth, THE, a name applied to the first independent civil government established in North America. In 1768 the Six Nations, by the treaty of Fort Stanwix, agreed to surrender all the lands between the Ohio and Tennessee rivers to the English, and many backwoodsmen began settling beyond the mountains before it was known that the Iroquois Indians had ceded lands to which they had no legal right. What is now eastern Tennessee was then western North Carolina, and this region consisted of a most tempting valley, with the Cumberland River on one side and the Great Smoky Mountains on the other. The first settlers in this region were largely from Virginia. In 1769 the first settlement was made on the banks of the Watauga River, the people believing they were still within the domain of Virginia. Two years later, however, a surveyor discovered that the settlement was really within the limits of North Carolina. This fact led to the organization of a civil government for the growing settlement, an act that was consummated at about the time the troubles between the royal governor of North Carolina and the regulators reached their climax. These troubles caused many people in North Carolina to seek repose and security beyond the mountains, and they located among the pioneers on the Watauga and Upper Holston rivers. The majority of these settlers were men of sterling worth, and were influential in forming in 1772 that government which subsequently grew to be the State of Tennessee. John Sevier and James Robertson were among their number, and both of these men were conspicuous in the novel movement. Under the title of "Articles of the Watauga Association" a written constitution was drafted, the first ever adopted by a community of American-born freemen. The settlers elected a representative assembly of thirteen men, which in turn elected a committee of five vested with judicial and executive authority. This was the first free and independent community established on the American continent. See NORTH CAROLINA; SEVIER, JOHN; TENNESSEE.

Waterbury, DAVID, military officer; born in Stamford, Conn., Feb. 12, 1722. He took part in the French and Indian War, being present at the battle of Lake George in 1755 and the attack on Ticonderoga in 1758; was with Gen. Richard Montgomery in his campaign against Quebec, in 1775; at the siege of St. John and the surrender of Montreal. On June 3, 1776, he was appointed a brigadier-general for the Northern Department by the General Assembly of Connecticut, and assigned to the command of the post at Skeensboro, N. Y., where he remained during the summer of 1776. In the battle of Valcour Bay, Oct. 11, 1776, he was

captured with his vessel, the *Washington*, but was soon exchanged; and during the remainder of the war commanded a brigade under Washington. He was a representative in the General Assembly in 1783, 1794, and 1795. He died in Stamford, Conn., June 29, 1801.

Water-distilling Ships, ships fitted out by the United States navy, in 1898, to supply war-ships, auxiliary craft, and transports with absolutely pure water. They were supplied with the most modern machinery for distilling salt water and each had a capacity of 200 tons of ice daily. Some of them were able to turn out 60,000 gallons of the purest distilled water every day.

Waterman, THOMAS WHITNEY, lawyer; born in Binghamton, N. Y., June 28, 1821; studied at Yale University; admitted to the bar in 1848; practised in New York City in 1848–70; removed to Binghamton in the latter year. He died in Binghamton, N. Y., Dec. 7, 1898.

Waters, HENRY FITZ-GILBERT, genealogist; born in Salem, Mass., March 29, 1833; graduated at Harvard College in 1855; member of the school committee of Salem in 1881–82, and its secretary in 1882–83; spent several years pursuing genealogical inquiries; and traced the family of John Harvard, for which he received the honorary degree of A.M. from Harvard in 1885.

Watervliet, a city in Albany county, N. Y., formerly the village of West Troy; on the Hudson River opposite the city of Troy. The city has large commercial interests, but is best known as the seat of an extensive arsenal, established by the United States government in 1807, and comprising one of the largest plants in existence for the manufacture of heavy ordnance, and shot, shell, and mounts therefor. The arsenal and the large stone magazines for powder and ammunition are within a reservation of about 110 acres of ground, which is bisected by the Erie Canal. This arsenal was kept busy during the Mexican and Civil wars in preparing the heaviest kinds of war material, and in recent years has been noted for its production of the improved ordnance provided for the army and the various defensive works on the coasts. Population of the city in 1900, 14,321; in 1910, 15,074.

Waterways. See LAKES-TO-GULF DEEP-WATERWAY; NATIONAL WATERWAYS COMMISSION.

Watie, STAND, military officer; born of Cherokee Indian parents in Cherokee (now the city of Rome), Ga., in 1815; held a seat in the legislative council of the Cherokees; was speaker of the lower branch in 1862–65; joined the Confederate army in 1861; made colonel of the 1st Cherokee Confederate Infantry in October of that year; and was promoted brigadier-general May 10, 1864. He died in Indian Territory, August, 1877.

Watkins, AARON SHERMAN, educator; born in Rushsylvania, O., Nov. 29, 1863; educated at the Ohio Northern University and Taylor University; professor of literature and philosophy in 1905–09, and vice-president in 1907–09, Ohio Northern University; president, Asbury College, Wilmore, Ky., from 1909; was Prohibition candidate for governor of Ohio in 1905 and 1908, and for Vice-President in 1908.

Watkins, JOHN ELFRETH, naturalist; born in Ben Lomond, Va., May 17, 1852; graduated at Lafayette College in 1871; curator of the United States National Museum in 1887–92; became superintendent and curator of the technological collections in the Museum in 1895. He wrote *History of the Pennsylvania Railroad in 1846–96*; *The Evolution of the Railway Passenger Car*, etc. He died in 1903.

Watling Island, one of the Bahaman group, southeast of Cat Island. In recent years the belief has become quite established that Watling, and not Cat Island, was the Guanahani Island described by Christopher Columbus in his *Journal* as the first American island seen by him, to which he gave the name of San Salvador. Walter Wellman, the explorer, led an expedition for the Chicago *Herald* in 1891 to locate the exact island, and after following the course described by Columbus himself was satisfied that the land first seen was Watling Island, and erected a memorial tablet there bearing an inscription of the fact.

Watson, SIR BROOK, military officer; born in Plymouth, England, Feb. 7, 1735; entered the naval service early in life, but while bathing in the sea at Havana in 1749 a shark bit off his right leg below the knee, and he abandoned the sea and

entered upon mercantile business. He was with Colonel Monckton in Nova Scotia in 1755, and was at the siege of Louisburg in 1758, having in charge Wolfe's division, as commissary. In 1759 he settled as a merchant in London, and afterwards in Montreal. Just before the Revolutionary War he visited several of the colonies, with false professions of political friendship for them, as a Whig. A friend of Sir Guy Carleton, he was made his commissary-general in America in 1782, and from 1784 to 1793 he was member of Parliament for London. He was sheriff of London and Middlesex, and in 1796 was lord mayor. For his services in America, Parliament voted his wife an annuity of $2,000 for life. From 1798 to 1806 he was commissary-general of England. He died Oct. 2, 1807.

Watson, DAVID KEMPER, lawyer; born in Madison county, O., June 18, 1849; graduated at Dickinson College in 1871; appointed assistant United States attorney for the southern district of Ohio; attorney-general of Ohio in 1887–89; member of Congress in 1895–97; appointed by President McKinley on the commission to revise and codify the civil penal laws of the United States. He is the author of *History of American Coinage; Early Judiciary; Early Laws and Bar of Ohio*, etc.

Watson, EBENEZER, editor; born in Bethlehem, Conn., in 1744. He was for several years editor and publisher of *The Courant;* and after his death in Hartford, Conn., Sept. 16, 1777, his second wife, HANNAH BUNCE, conducted the paper, probably the first woman who edited a newspaper in this country.

Watson, ELKANAH, agriculturist; born in Plymouth, Mass., Jan. 22, 1758; was apprenticed in 1773 to John Brown, a merchant in Providence, R. I., who in 1775 sent him with a large quantity of powder to Washington for use in the siege of Boston. At the age of twenty-one (1779) he was made bearer of despatches by Congress to Dr. Franklin, in Paris. He visited Michigan and explored the lake region, and also a route to Montreal, with a view to opening some improved way for its commercial connection with New York and Boston. In 1828 he settled at Port Kent, on the west side of Lake Champlain, where he died, Dec. 5, 1842. His unfinished autobiography, completed by his son, Winslow Cossoul Watson, was published in 1855 under the title of *Men and Times of the Revolution.* Among his published writings were a *History of the Western Canals of New York;* a *History of the Modern Agricultural Societies; Agricultural Societies on the Modern Berkshire System*, etc.

Watson, FORT, CAPTURE OF. Upon an ancient tumulus, almost 50 feet high, on the borders of Scott's Lake (an expansion of the Santee River), a few miles below the junction of the Congaree and Wateree, the British built Fort Watson, named in compliment to Colonel Watson, who projected it. In April, 1781, it was garrisoned by eighty regulars and forty loyalists, under the command of Lieutenant McKay, when Marion and Lee appeared before it and demanded its surrender. Colonel Watson was on his way from Georgetown with a large force to assist McKay, and the latter promptly defied Marion and Lee. The latter had no cannon, and the stockade was too high to be seriously affected by small-arms. Lieutenant Maham, of Marion's brigade, planned and built a tower of logs sufficiently high to overlook the stockade, with a parapet at the top for the defence of sharp-shooters placed therein. This work was accomplished during a dark night, and at dawn the garrison was awakened by a shower of bullets from a company of riflemen on the top of the tower. Another party ascended the mound and attacked the abatis with vigor. Resistance was vain. The fort, untenable, was surrendered (April 23), and, with the garrison as prisoners, Marion pushed northward to the High Hills of Santee.

Watson, HENRY CLAY, author; born in Baltimore, Md., in 1831; removed to Philadelphia, Pa., and engaged in journalism; was connected with the *North American*, and the *Evening Journal;* later removed to Sacramento, where he edited the *Times.* He wrote *Camp-fires of the Revolution; Nights in a Block-house; Old Bell of Independence; The Yankee Teapot; Lives of the Presidents of the United States; Heroic Women of History*, etc. He died in Sacramento, Cal., July 10, 1869.

Watson, JOHN CRITTENDEN, naval officer; born in Frankfort, Ky., Aug. 24,

1842; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1860; served in the Civil War, being present at the passage of Forts Jackson and St. Philip and the Vicksburg batteries; took part in the battle of Mobile Bay, etc.; promoted lieutenant-commander, July 25, 1866; captain, March 6, 1887; and commodore, Nov. 7, 1897. On June 27, 1898, he was appointed chief of the Eastern Squadron, which was originally organized for the purpose of intercepting the Spanish fleet under Admiral Camara, which it was supposed had sailed for the United States under orders to devastate the coast cities and to cooperate with Admiral Cervera. Became rear-admiral, March 3, 1899; commanded the Asiatic Station in 1899–1900. He was retired in 1904. See SPAIN, WAR WITH.

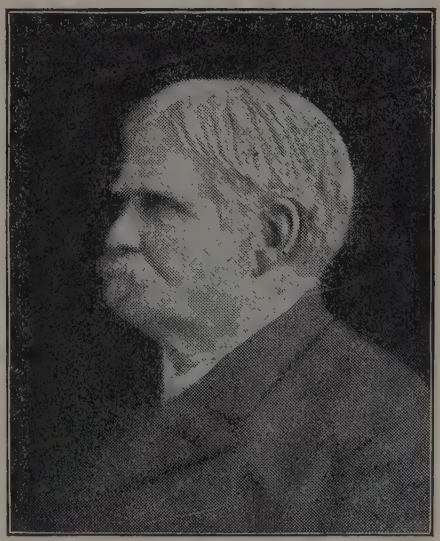
Watson, JOHN FANNING, historian; born in Burlington county, N. J., June 13, 1779; was a clerk in the War Department in 1798, and afterwards went to New Orleans, where, in 1804, he was purveyor of subsistence for the United States troops stationed there. Returning to Philadelphia, he was a bookseller there for many years. From 1814 until 1847 he was cashier of a bank in Germantown, and afterwards was treasurer of a railroad company. He was an industrious delver in antiquarian lore, and in 1830 he published *Annals of Philadelphia.* In 1846 he published *Annals of New York City and State.* He had already published *Historic Tales of the Olden Times in New York* (1832) and *Historic Tales of the Olden Times in Philadelphia* (1833). He also left manuscript annals in the Philadelphia Library. He died in Germantown, Pa., Dec. 23, 1860.

Watson, PAUL BARRON, author; born in Morristown, N. J., March 25, 1861; graduated at Harvard College in 1881; admitted to the bar in 1885, and practised in Boston. He published a *Bibliography of the Pre-Columbian Discoveries of America.*

Watson, THOMAS E., lawyer; born in Columbia county, Ga., Sept. 5, 1856; admitted to the bar in 1875 and practised in Thomson, Ga.; member of the Georgia legislature in 1882–83; and of Congress (as a Populist) in 1891–93. During the latter period he had a bill passed granting the first appropriation for the free delivery of mail in rural districts. He was the Populist nominee for Vice-President in 1896, and for President in 1904 and 1908. From 1906 he was editor and publisher of *Watson's Jeffersonian Magazine* and *The Weekly Jeffersonian,* at Atlanta, Ga. He is the author of *The Story of France; Life of Thomas Jefferson; The Life of Napoleon; Bethany, a Study and Story of the Old South,* etc.

Watson, WINSLOW COSSOUL, author; born in Albany, N. Y., Dec. 22, 1803. He published *Pioneer History of the Champlain Valley, Giving an Account of the Settlement of the Town of Willsboro, by William Gilliland, together with his Journal and Other Papers,* and a *Memoir; The History of Essex County, N. Y., and Military Annals of Ticonderoga and Crown Point,* etc.

Watterson, HENRY, journalist; born in Washington, D. C., Feb. 16, 1840; received a private education; was a staff officer in the Confederate army during the



HENRY WATTERSON.

Civil War. After the war he engaged in journalism; became editor of the Louisville *Courier-Journal;* member of Congress in 1876–77. He is the author of *History of the Spanish-American War; Abraham Lincoln; Oddities of Southern Life and Character,* etc.

Watts, FREDERICK, military officer; born in Wales, June 1, 1719; emigrated to the United States and settled in Cumberland county, Pa., in 1760. He served in the Revolutionary War as lieutenant-colonel, and had command of the battalion that was assigned to Cumberland county. At the surrender of Fort Washington this division was captured. After his exchange he was made a justice of the peace; a representative in the Assembly in 1779; sub-lieutenant of Cumberland county in 1780; commissioned brigadier-general of volunteers in 1782; and was a member of the supreme executive council in 1787–90. He died on his farm on Juniata River, Oct. 3, 1795.

Watts, JOHN, legislator; born in New York City, April 16, 1715; married a daughter of Stephen De Lancey in July, 1742; represented New York City in the Provincial Assembly for many years, and was a member of the council eighteen years (1757–75), when, taking sides with the crown, he went to England. His property was confiscated; but the most valuable part of it was afterwards reconveyed to his sons, Robert and John, in July, 1784. He died in Wales in August, 1789.

Watts, STEPHEN, lawyer; born about 1743; graduated at the University of Pennsylvania in 1762; admitted to the bar in Philadelphia in 1769; removed to Louisiana in 1774; later became recorder of deeds of the English settlements on the Mississippi. He wrote an essay on *Reciprocal Advantage of a Perpetual Union between Great Britain and Her American Colonies,* which was published in 1766. He died in Louisiana in 1788.

Watts, THOMAS HILL, legislator; born in Butler county, Ala., Jan. 3, 1820; graduated at the University of Virginia in 1840; admitted to the bar and began practice in his native city; elected to the State legislature in 1842 and to the State Senate in 1853; and represented Montgomery county in the State convention of 1861. He entered the Confederate service as colonel at the beginning of the Civil War; resigned his post in 1862 after the battle of Shiloh, in which he greatly distinguished himself, on being appointed Attorney-General in President Davis's cabinet; and was elected governor of Alabama in 1863. He died in Montgomery, Ala., Sept. 16, 1892.

Wauhatchie, BATTLE OF. When General Grant arrived at Chattanooga and took chief command, Oct. 23, 1863, he saw the necessity of opening a more direct way to that post for its supplies. General Hooker, who had been sent with a large force under Howard and Slocum from Virginia, was then at Bridgeport, on the Tennessee, and Grant ordered him to cross that stream and advance to the Lookout Valley and menace Bragg's left. He did so, and reached Wauhatchie, in that valley, on the 28th, after some sharp skirmishing. Being anxious to hold the road leading from Lookout Valley to Kelly's Ferry, Hooker sent General Geary to encamp at Wauhatchie. Hooker's movements had been keenly watched by McLaws's division of Longstreet's corps, then holding Lookout Mountain. McLaws swept down the rugged hills and struck Geary's small force at 1 A.M., on Oct. 29, hoping to crush it and capture Hooker's whole army. The attack was made with great fury on three sides of the camp, while batteries on the mountain-sides sent down screaming shells.

Geary was not surprised. He met the assailants with a steady, deadly fire. Hearing the noise of battle, Hooker sent General Schurz's division of Howard's corps to Geary's assistance. The Confederates were repulsed after a sharp battle of three hours. They fled, leaving 150 of their number dead on Geary's front; also 100 prisoners and several hundred small-arms. The National loss was 416 killed and wounded. This result secured a safe communication for supplies for the Nationals between Bridgeport and Chattanooga.

Waul, THOMAS NEVILLE, lawyer; born in Sumter District, S. C., Jan. 5, 1813; began practice in Mississippi; removed to Gonzales county, Tex., in 1850; member of the Provisional Congress of the Confederate States in 1861, during which year he recruited 2,000 troops, known as Waul's Legion. He commanded the defenses at Tallahatchie and Yazoo rivers, Miss.; promoted brigadier-general; took a conspicuous part in the battles of Pleasant Hill and Mansfield, La.; and was wounded in the battle of Saline. In 1865 he was a member of the Texas Reconstruction Convention. He died in 1903.

MAP OF THE REGION OF THE BATTLE OF WAUHATCHIE.

Waxhaw (S. C.), BATTLE OF, May 29, 1780, usually known as the Waxhaw Massacre. See BUFORD, ABRAHAM; TARLETON, SIR BANASTRE.

Wayland, FRANCIS, educator; born in New York City, March 11, 1796; graduated at Union College in 1813; studied medicine for three years; entered the Andover Theological Seminary in 1816; was instructor there for four years; ordained in the Baptist Church, and became pastor of the First Baptist church in Boston, Mass., in 1821; was professor in Union College in 1826; president of Brown University in 1827–55; pastor of the First Baptist church in Providence,

R. I., in 1855; and author of *Thoughts on the Present Collegiate System of the United States; Domestic Slavery Considered as a Spiritual Institution*, etc. He died in Providence, R. I., Sept. 30, 1865.

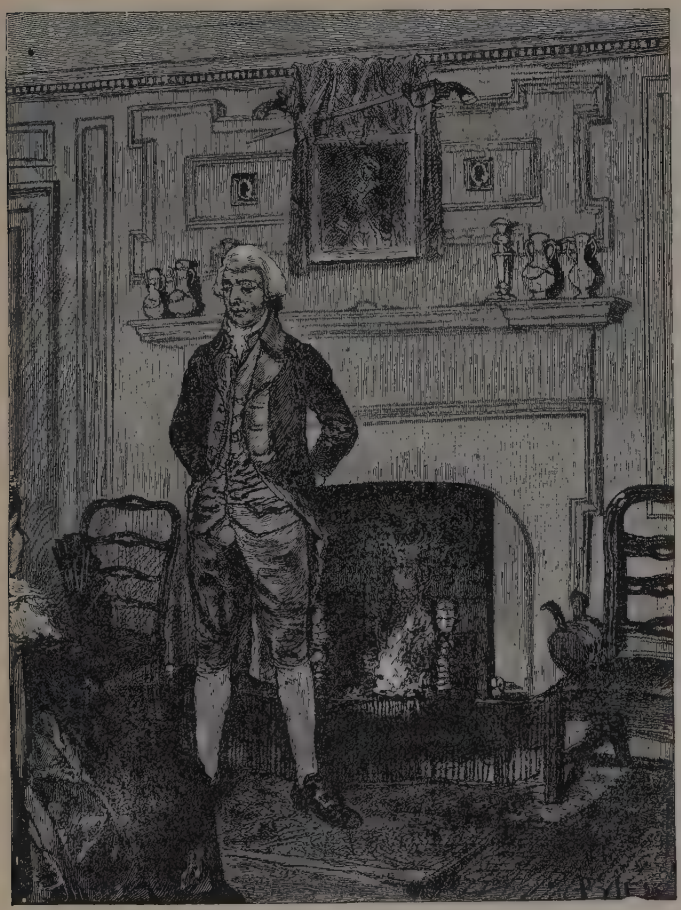
Wayne, ANTHONY, military officer; born in Easttown, Chester co., Pa., Jan. 1, 1745. His grandfather, who came to America in 1722, was commander of a squadron of dragoons under William III. at the battle of the Boyne, in Ireland. Anthony, after receiving a good English education in Philadelphia, was appointed a land agent in Nova Scotia, where he remained a year. Returning, he married, and until 1774 was a farmer and surveyor in Pennsylvania. He was a member of the Pennsylvania legislature in 1774–75; and in September of the latter year he raised the 4th Regiment, of the Pennsylvania line, and was appointed colonel in January, 1776. He went with his regiment to Canada; was wounded in the battle of Three Rivers; and in February, 1777, was made brigadier-general. In the battle of Brandywine, in September, he was distinguished; and nine days afterwards he was surprised in the night near the Paoli Tavern, on the Lancaster road, in Pennsylvania, when his command was much cut up, but the remainder retreated in safety. He led the right wing of the army in the attack at Germantown, and was slightly wounded. In the battle of Monmouth he was very distinguished; and his capture of Stony Point, on the Hudson, in July, 1779, was one of the most brilliant achievements of the war. In that attack he was wounded in the head, and Congress gave him a vote of thanks and a gold medal. In June, 1781, Wayne joined Lafayette in Virginia, where he performed excellent service until the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown.

After the surrender, the Pennsylvania line, under Wayne, marched to South Carolina, and their commander, with a part of them, was sent by General Greene to Georgia. On May 21, 1782, Colonel Brown marched out of Savannah in strong force to confront rapidly advancing Wayne. The latter got between Brown and Savannah, attacked him at midnight, and routed the whole party. This event occurred on the Ogeechee road, about 4 miles southwest of Savannah. The vanguard of the Americans was composed of sixty horsemen and twenty infantry, led by Col. Anthony Walton White. These made a spirited charge, killing or wounding forty of the British and making twenty of them prisoners. The sword and bayonet did the work. The Americans lost five killed and two wounded. On June 24 a part of Wayne's army, lying about 5 miles from Savannah, was fiercely attacked by a body of Creek Indians, who first drove the troops and took two pieces of artillery; but they were soon utterly routed by a spirited charge. The brief battle was fought hand-to-hand with swords, bayonets, and tomahawks, and fourteen Indians and two white men were

GOLD MEDAL AWARDED BY CONGRESS TO GENERAL WAYNE.

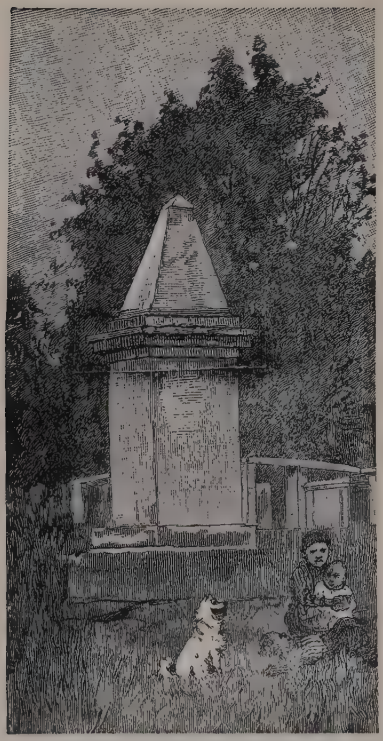
MAJOR-GENERAL ANTHONY WAYNE

killed. Guristersigo, a famous Creek chief, was killed. The royalists coming out of Savannah to assist the Indians were driven back, with the loss of a standard and 127 horses with packs. The men fled back to the city, and soon afterwards evacuated it. Wayne took possession of the city, and of the province of Georgia, which had been held by the British military commanders about four years. It was estimated that Georgia lost in the war 1,000 of its citizens and 4,000 of its slaves (see GEORGIA; SAVANNAH, EVACUATION OF). In 1784–85 Wayne served in the Pennsylvania Assembly, and in the convention that ratified the national Constitution. In April, 1792, he was made general-in-chief of the army.



DRAWING-ROOM OF GENERAL WAYNE'S HOUSE.

The defeat of GEN. ARTHUR ST. CLAIR (*q. v.*) spread alarm along the frontiers and indignation throughout the country. General Wayne was appointed his successor. Apprehending that pending negotiations with the Indians, if they failed, would be followed by immediate hostilities against the frontiers, Wayne marched into the Northwestern Territory in the autumn of 1793 with a competent force. He spent the winter at Greenvile, not far from the place of St. Clair's disaster, and built a stockade, which he named Fort Recovery. The following summer he pushed on through the wilderness towards the Maumee, and at its junction with the Auglaize he built Fort Defiance. On the St. Mary's he built Fort Adams as an intermediate post; and in August he went down the Maumee with 1,000 men and encamped near a British post at the foot of the Maumee Rapids, called Fort Miami, or Maumee. Wayne, with a force ample to destroy the Indians in spite of British influence, willing to spare bloodshed, offered them peace and tranquillity if they would lay down their weapons. They refused. Wayne then advanced to the head of the rapids, and at a place called

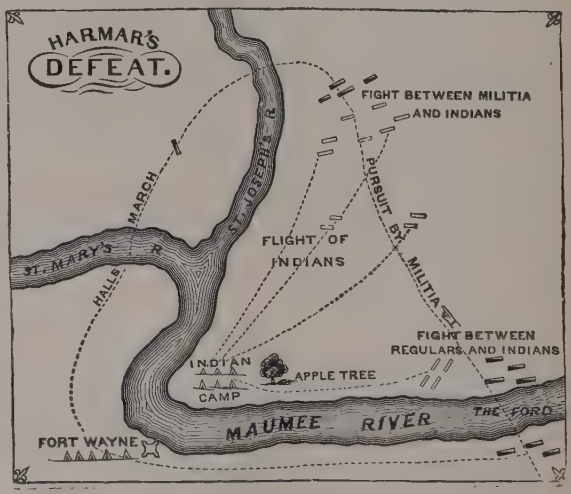


GENERAL WAYNE'S GRAVE.

Fallen Timbers, not far above (present) Maumee City, he attacked and defeated the Indians on Aug. 20. Almost all the dead warriors were found with British arms. Wayne laid waste their country, and at the middle of September moved up to the junction of the St. Mary's and St. Joseph's rivers, near the (present) city of Fort Wayne, Ind., and built a strong fortification which he named Fort Wayne. The little army wintered at Greenville. The Indians perceived their own weakness and sued for peace. The following summer about 1,100 sachems and warriors, representing twelve cantons, met (Aug. 3, 1795) commissioners of the United States at Greenville and made a treaty of peace.

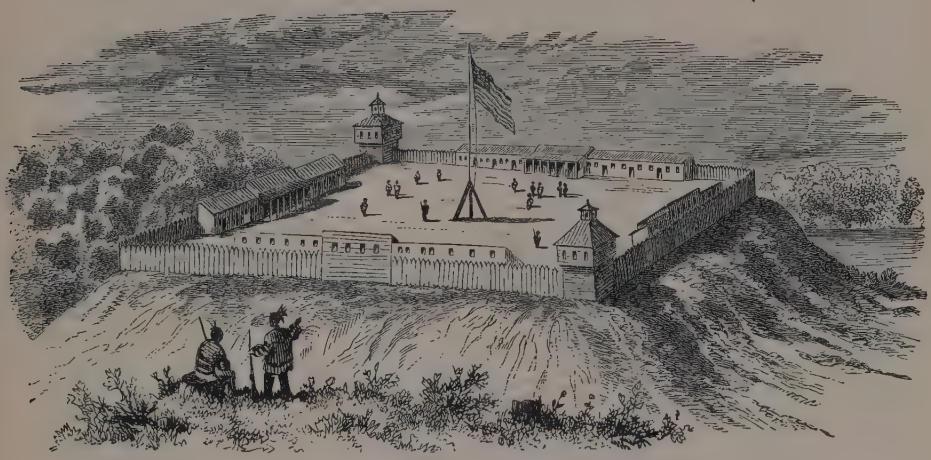
Brave to the verge of rashness, Wayne received the name of "Mad Anthony." Yet he was discreet and cautious, fruitful in resources, and prompt in the execution of plans. After his successful campaign against the Indians, he returned to Fort Presque Isle (now Erie), Pa., where he died, Dec. 15, 1796. His body was afterwards removed by his son and buried in Radnor church-yard, in his native county. Over his remains the Pennsylvania Society of the Cincinnati caused a neat marble monument to be erected in 1809.

Wayne, Fort, Attack on. Forts Wayne and Harrison, the former at the junction of the St. Joseph's and St. Mary's rivers, where they formed the Maumee, and the latter on the Wabash, were strongholds of the Americans in the Northwest in 1812. General Proctor, in command at Fort Malden, resolved to reduce them, with the assistance of Tecumseh, whom Brock had commissioned a brigadier-general. Major Muir, with British regulars and Indians, was to proceed up the Maumee Valley to co-operate with other Indians, and Sept. 1 was appointed as the day when they should invest Fort Wayne. The garrison consisted of only seventy men under Capt. James Rhea. The Indians prosecuted raids in other directions to divert attention from Forts Wayne and Harrison and prevent their being reinforced. A scalping-party fell upon the "Pigeon-roost Settlement"



MAP OF FORT WAYNE AND VICINITY.

in Scott county, Ind. (Sept. 3), and during the twilight they killed three men, five women, and sixteen children. Indians had been seen hovering in the woods around Fort Wayne, and on the night of Sept. 5 they attacked the sentinels. The treacherous Miamis joined the other Indians in an attack on the fort on the night of the 6th. They attempted to scale the palisades, but were driven back. Then, under the direction of a half-breed, they formed two logs into the shape of cannon, and demanded the instant surrender of the fort. The troops were not frightened. The besiegers kept up assaults until the 12th, when they fled precipitately on the approach of a delivering force. The city of Fort Wayne (*q. v.*) stands near the spot.



FORT WAYNE.

Wayne, James Moore, jurist; born in Savannah, Ga., in 1790; graduated at Princeton College in 1808; admitted to the bar in 1810, and began practice in his native city; was judge of the Georgia Supreme Court in 1824–29; member of Congress in 1829–35; and in the latter year was appointed an associate justice of the United States Supreme Court, where he sat till his death in Washington, D. C., July 5, 1867.

Wayne's Indian Campaign. See Ohio; Wayne, Anthony.

Ways and Means, one of the most important standing committees of Congress, first created Dec. 21, 1795. It has charge of the questions of taxation, the tariff, the public debt, etc.

Waynesboro (Va.), Battle of. On March 3, 1865, Gen. Early, with two divisions of infantry and Rosser's cavalry, behind breastworks, was attacked by Gen. Custer's division and was forced to retreat. Early lost 1,600 men, 11 guns, and his wagon train.

Wealth, Distribution of. See Distribution of Wealth.

Weather Bureau. The United States weather bureau, from its organization in 1870 until June 30, 1891, when it was transferred to the Department of Agriculture, was a division of the United States signal service under the War Department. It was organized by Chief Signal Officer Brig.-Gen. Albert J. Myer, under act of Congress, Feb. 9, 1870, the first legislation of the United States for a national weather service. Meteorological reports had been collected and maps sent out daily by Professor Henry at the Smithsonian Institution in 1854, and European governments had issued storm warnings in Holland, France, and England; but Prof. Cleveland Abbé, meteorologist, of Cincinnati, originated the present system of weather forecasts. Professor Abbé began the publication of the

Weather Bulletin of the Cincinnati Observatory, for the benefit of the Cincinnati chamber of commerce, Sept. 1, 1869. His success led Professor Lapham, of Milwaukee, to cause memorials for a national system, to be endorsed by all chambers of commerce and boards of trade, and presented to Congress with a bill by Gen. H. E. Paine, resulting in the act of 1870. The great value of the service lies in *simultaneous* weather observations throughout the United States, transmitted twice daily by telegraph to Washington, from which are made synoptic weather maps and press reports telegraphed to all points. Cautionary storm-signals are displayed for the shipping at all seaport and lake stations, and special flood reports at river stations. For the benefit of agriculture, special farmers' bulletins are issued from the Washington office at 1 A.M., and distributed by the "railway weather bulletin service," so that, in the remotest sections, the farmer may know at an early hour the "probabilities" for the day. The title "Old Probabilities," familiarly applied to the head of the weather bureau, was first given in 1869 to Professor Abbé, chosen in 1870 by General Myer to prepare "probabilities," or storm-warnings.

Chronology.—First weather bulletins of simultaneous observations issued and telegraphed to more than twenty cities
Nov. 4, 1870

First storm-warning bulletins along the lakes issued about.....Nov. 10–15, 1870

Systematic tri-daily weather predictions begun.....Feb. 12, 1871

Display of cautionary signals on the sea-coasts and lakes begun..Oct. 24, 1871

Signal service changed to extend its researches in the interest of agriculture, by act approved.....June 10, 1872

Signal-service stations established at light-house and life-saving stations on the lakes and sea-coast, by act of
March 3, 1873

Monthly Weather Review first published 1873

System of international co-operative simultaneous weather observation, proposed by General Myer at the congress of meteorologists convened at Vienna, is begun.....September, 1873

All Smithsonian weather observers transferred to the signal service at the instance of Prof. Joseph Henry
Feb. 2, 1874

Meteorological reports of army post surgeons ordered by the surgeon-general to be sent to the chief signal office
June 19, 1874

Daily publication of *Bulletin of International Simultaneous Meteorological Observations* begun .....Jan. 1, 1875

Publication of *International Weather Maps of Simultaneous Observations* begun by General Myer .....July 1, 1878

Brig.-Gen. W. B. Hazen appointed chief signal officer .....Dec. 6, 1880

Gen. A. W. Greely appointed chief signal officer .....March 3, 1887

Weather Bureau transferred to the Department of Agriculture, and Prof. Mark W. Harrington appointed chief
June 30, 1891

Willis L. Moore succeeded Prof. Harrington as chief 1895

Weathersford, WILLIAM, Indian chief; born on the Hickory Ground, in the Creek nation, Ala., about 1770. His father was an itinerant white peddler, sordid, treacherous, and revengeful. His mother was a full-blooded Creek, of the tribe of the Seminoles. Weathersford inherited the bad qualities of each, but honor and humanity predominated in his character. He was possessed of rare eloquence and courage, and these, with his good judgment, procured for him the respect of the old among his countrymen; while his vices made him the idol of the young and unprincipled. He was of a commanding person — tall, straight, and well proportioned; his eyes black, lively, and penetrating in their glance; his nose prominent and thin, but elegant in formation. Passionately devoted to wealth, he had appropriated a fine tract of land, improved and settled it, and had embellished it from the profits of his father's pack. He entered fully into the views of TECUMSEH (*q. v.*), and if there had been no delay in perfecting the confederacy and opening war he might have overrun the whole Mississippi Valley. He led in the attack upon Fort Mims, and used all his power and persuasion to prevent the massacre of the women and children, but without success. That massacre aroused all the white people of the great valley

against the Creek nation, and the sons of all Tennessee marched to their country and in the course of a few months destroyed the nation.

It was made a condition of peace with the Creeks by Jackson that they should bring to him Weathersford, their great leader, for he could not pardon him. He then knew neither the great Creek chief nor his own plasticity. Weathersford did not wait to be caught and dragged like a felon to the feet of the leader of the pale-faces. He saw in the events at the Horseshoe Bend that all hope for his nation was gone. He mounted his fine gray horse, which had saved his life, and rode to Jackson's camp, where he arrived at sunset. He entered Jackson's tent and found the general alone. Drawing himself up to his full height and folding his arms, he said: "I am Weathersford, the chief who commanded at Fort Mims. I have nothing to request for myself. You can kill me if you desire. I have come to beg you to send for the women and children of the war-party, who are now starving in the woods. Their fields and cribs have been destroyed by your people, who have driven them to the woods without an ear of corn. I hope that you will send out parties who will conduct them safely here, in order that they may be fed. I exerted myself in vain to save the women and children at Fort Mims. I have come now to ask peace for my people, but not for myself." Jackson expressed astonishment that one so guilty should dare to appear in his presence and ask for peace and protection. "I am in your power; do with me as you please," the chief haughtily replied. "I am a soldier. I have done the white people all the harm I could. I have fought them, and fought them bravely; and if I had an army I would yet fight and contend to the last. But I have none. My people are all gone. I can now do no more than to weep over the misfortunes of my nation." Here was a man after Jackson's own heart — a patriot who fought bravely for his people and his land, and fearlessly expressed his patriotism in the presence of one who had power over his life. He was told that absolute submission and the acceptance of a home beyond the Mississippi for his nation was the only wise policy for him to pursue. "If, however," said Jackson, "you desire to continue the war, and feel prepared to meet the consequences, you may depart in peace and unite yourself with the war-party if you choose." Half scornfully, half sorrowfully, Weathersford replied: "I may well be addressed in such language now. There was a time when I had a choice and could have answered you; I have none now—even hope is ended. Once I could animate my warriors to battle; but I cannot animate the dead. My warriors can no longer hear my voice. Their bones are at Talladega, Tallushatchee, Emucfaw, and Tohopeka. I have not surrendered myself thoughtlessly. While there was a chance for success I never left my post nor supplicated peace. But my people are gone, and I ask it for my nation, not for myself. On the miseries and misfortunes brought upon my country I look back with deepest sorrow, and wish to avert still greater calamities. If I had been left to contend with the Georgia army I would have raised my corn on one bank of the river and fought them on the other. But *your* people have destroyed my nation. You are a brave man; I rely upon your generosity. You will exact no terms of a conquered people but such as they should agree to. Whatever they may be, it would now be folly and madness to oppose. If they are opposed, you will find me among the sternest supporters of obedience. Those who would still hold out can be influenced only by a mean spirit of revenge, and to this they must not and shall not sacrifice the last remnant of their country. You have told our nation where we might go and be safe. This is good talk, and they ought to listen to it. They *shall listen* to it." Thus spoke Weathersford for his nation. Words of honor responded to words of honor, and Weathersford was allowed to go freely to the forest to search for his scattered followers and counsel peace.

The chief returned and became a respected citizen of Alabama. He settled on a farm in Monroe county, well supplied with negro slaves, where he maintained the character of an honest man. Soon after his return he married, and Gen. Samuel Dale, with whom he had several encounters, was his groomsman.

He said he could not live there, for his old comrades, the hostile Creeks, ate his cattle from starvation, the peace party ate them for revenge, and the white squatters because he was a "damned red-skin"; so he said, "I have come to live among gentlemen." Weathersford died from the effects of fatigue caused by a desperate bear-hunt in 1824.

Weather Signals. GEN. ALBERT J. MYER (*q. v.*), the originator of the signal service of the United States, also invented and organized a weather signal service, which has been the means of conferring great benefits upon agriculture and commerce especially. This system, as arranged by General Myer, was established by Congress in 1870, and for twenty years was a part of the signal service of the United States army. The Fifty-first Congress passed an act providing that while the signal service should remain as a branch of the army, the forecasting of the weather should become one of the duties of the Agricultural Department and be conducted by a special bureau. This law went into effect on July 1, 1891, and all the duties connected with the system of weather signals were transferred to the new bureau. The first chief of the bureau was Prof. Mark W. Harrington, of Michigan. Simultaneous weather reports from simultaneous observations taken at different places are transmitted to the bureau at Washington. Three of these simultaneous reports are made in each twenty-four hours, at intervals of eight hours; and warnings are given by signals, maps, bulletins, and official despatches, furnished by the bureau, three times a day, to nearly all the newspapers in the land. So thoroughly is this work done, by means of the telegraph, telephone, and mail, the perfect organization of the system, and the discipline of the operators, that it is estimated one-third of all the families in our country are in possession, each day, of the information issued from the weather bureau. Fully 90 per cent. of the predictions are verified by actual results of predictions by districts.

Weather Signals.—The following are the flags used to foretell changes in the weather:

WEATHER FLAGS.

When number 4 is placed above number 1, 2, or 3, it indicates warmer; when below, colder; when not displayed, the temperature is expected to remain about stationary. During the late spring and early fall the cold-wave flag is also used to indicate anticipated frosts.

The following flags are used to indicate approaching storms and hurricanes:

Storm Warnings.—A red flag with a

STORM WARNING FLAGS.

black centre indicates that a storm of marked violence is expected.

The pennants displayed with the flags indicate the direction of the wind; red, easterly (from northeast to south); white, westerly (from southwest to north). The pennant above the flag indicates that the wind is expected to blow from the northerly quadrants; below, from the southerly quadrants.

By night a red light indicates easterly winds, and a white light below a red light westerly winds.

Hurricane Warnings.—Two red flags with black centres, displayed one above the other, indicate the approach of a tropical hurricane or an extremely severe and dangerous storm.

WHISTLE SIGNALS.

A warning blast of from fifteen to twenty seconds' duration is sounded to attract attention. After this warning the longer blasts (of from four to six seconds' duration) refer to weather, and shorter blasts (of from one to three seconds' duration) refer to temperature; those for weather are sounded first.

Blasts.	Indicate.
One long	Fair weather.
Two long	Rain or snow.
Three long	Local rain or snow.
One short	Lower temperature.
Two short	Higher temperature.
Three short	Cold wave.

Weaver, AARON WARD, naval officer; born in the District of Columbia, July 1, 1832; graduated at the United States Naval Academy in 1854; commissioned lieutenant in 1855; cruised along the coast of Africa in 1858–59 and returned home in command of the prize slaver *Ardennes;* served through the Civil War, winning distinction in the actions at Plaquemine, La., Donaldsonville, and in those which occurred below that place after the fall of Port Hudson. In 1865, while in command of the monitor *Mahopac* he took part in the capture of Fort Fisher, and with the same vessel was present at the surrender of Richmond. He commanded the iron-clad *Dictator* in Cuban waters during the threatened war with Spain on account of the *Virginius* affair in 1873; promoted captain in 1876; commodore in 1886; and rear-admiral, June 27, 1893; and was retired Sept. 26 following.

Weaver, JAMES B., lawyer; born in Dayton, O., June 12, 1833; graduated at the Law School of the Ohio University in 1854; served in the National army in 1861–65; was promoted colonel of volunteers and brevetted brigadier-general; member of Congress in 1879–81 and in 1885–89. In 1880 he was the candidate of the Greenback party for President and received 307,306 popular votes (see GREENBACK PARTY); and in 1892 was the candidate of the People's party, the successor of the FARMERS' ALLIANCE PARTY (*q. v.*), for the same office. The Knights of Labor co-operated with the Farmers' Alliance in holding the conference at St. Louis in February, 1892. This convention declared itself "the first labor conference of the United States and the world, representing all divisions of urban and rural organized industry," and joined in the call for the Convention at Omaha in July, 1892, to nominate a candidate for the Presidency. Mr. Weaver received 1,041,028 popular and twenty-two electoral votes. He died at Des Moines, Iowa, Feb. 6, 1912.

Webb, ALEXANDER STEWART, military officer; born in New York City, Feb. 15, 1835; son of James Watson Webb; graduated at West Point in 1855. Entering the artillery, he served against the Seminoles in Florida in 1856, and from 1857 to 1861 was assistant professor of mathematics at West Point. In May, 1861, he was made captain of infantry, and in June, 1863, brigadier-general of volunteers. He was one of the defenders of Fort Pickens; fought at Bull Run and through the campaign on the Peninsula; was chief of staff of the 5th Corps at Antietam and Chancellorsville; served with distinction at Gettysburg, and commanded a brigade in the 2d Corps, in Virginia, from October, 1863, to April, 1864. He commanded a brigade in the campaign against Richmond in 1864–65, and in January, 1865, was General Meade's chief of staff. In March he was brevetted major-general United States army, and was discharged in 1870. In 1869–1903 he was president of the College of the City of New York. His publications include *The*

Peninsula: McClellan's Campaign of 1862; and a number of articles relating to the Civil War. He died in New York City, Feb. 12, 1911.

Webb, JAMES WATSON, journalist; born in Claverack, N. Y., Feb. 8, 1802; entered the army in 1819, was first lieutenant in 1823, and resigned in 1827, when he became a journalist, soon taking a leading position in that profession as editor and proprietor of the New York *Courier and Enquirer.* In 1850 he was appointed *chargé d'affaires* at the Court of Vienna, but the Senate did not confirm the nomination. In 1861 he was appointed minister to Brazil, where he settled long-pending claims against that government; and he was chiefly instrumental, through his personal intimacy with Napoleon III., in procuring the withdrawal of the French troops from Mexico. For many years he exerted a powerful influence in the politics of the United States. Among his special publications are *Altowan, or Incidents of Life and Adventure in the Rocky Mountains; Slavery and Its Tendency;* and a treatise on *National Currency.* He died in New York City, June 7, 1884.

Webb, SAMUEL BLATCHLEY, military officer; born at Weathersfield, Conn., Dec. 15, 1753; father of the preceding and step-son of Silas Deane; was thanked for his gallantry in the battle of Bunker (Breed's) Hill, where he was wounded, and in June, 1776, was appointed aide-de-camp to Washington. In the battle of White Plains he was again wounded; also at Trenton. He was in the battle of Brandywine, and in 1778 raised and took command of the 3d Connecticut Regiment. In 1779 he, with most of his men, were captured by the British fleet while crossing to Long Island with General Parsons, and was not released until 1780, when he took command of the light infantry, with the brevet rank of brigadier-general. He lived in New York City after the war, until 1789, when he removed to Claverack, N. Y., where he died, Dec. 3, 1807.

Webb, THOMAS, clergyman; born in England in 1724; was an officer in the British army; served with the Royal American forces, being wounded at Louisburg and Quebec; became a Methodist in 1765, and was licensed to preach; and was made barrack master at Albany, N. Y., about the same time. In 1767 he went to New York City, and there aided Philip Embury in the work of the Methodist Society. After being retired from the army with the rank of captain, he devoted his time to missionary work in New Jersey, Delaware, and Maryland. In 1767 he established the first Methodist Society in Philadelphia, Pa. He visited England several times, and permanently settled there at the outbreak of the Revolutionary War. He died in Bristol, England, Dec. 20, 1796.

Webb, WILLIAM HENRY, ship-builder; born in New York City, June 19, 1816; received a private education; learned the ship-builders' trade in his father's yard, and started in business for himself in 1843. He built over 150 vessels; devised a new model for navy vessels; and constructed many vessels of great speed and capacity. He built and endowed the Webb Academy and Home for Ship-builders, Fordham Heights, N. Y. He died in New York City, Oct. 30, 1899.

Webber, CHARLES WILKINS, journalist; born in Russelville, Ky., May 29, 1819. He went to Texas when that Territory was struggling for independence (1838); was for several years connected with the Texan Rangers; returned to Kentucky, where he studied medicine; later entered Princeton Theological Seminary; and subsequently settled in New York and engaged in literary work. He contributed to *The New World, The Democratic Review,* and *The Sunday Despatch;* and was associate editor and joint proprietor of *The Whig Review.* In 1849 he attempted to lead an exploring and mining expedition, but failed; in 1855 went to Central America, where he joined WILLIAM WALKER (*q. v.*) in Nicaragua. He was killed in a skirmish, April 11, 1856. He wrote *Old Hicks the Guide, or Adventures in the Comanche Country in Search of a Gold Mine; The Gold Mines of the Gila,* etc.

Webber, SAMUEL, educator; born in Byfield, Mass., in 1759; graduated at Harvard College in 1784; entered the ministry; and became a tutor in Harvard in 1787; was Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy there in 1789–1804, and then became president. He was one of the commissioners appointed to set-

tle the boundary-line between the United States and the British provinces; vice-president of the American Academy; author of *System of Mathematics; Eulogy on President Willard;* etc. He died in Cambridge, Mass., July 17, 1810.

WEBSTER, DANIEL

Webster, DANIEL, statesman; born in Salisbury (now Franklin), N. H., Jan. 18, 1782; graduated at Dartmouth in 1801, defraying a portion of his expenses by teaching school. After teaching in Maine he studied law, and was admitted to the bar in 1805. He soon rose to eminence in his profession at Portsmouth, N. H., and was a member of Congress in 1813–17, where he soon took a foremost rank in debate. In 1816 he settled in Boston, and, by his services in the Dartmouth College case, which was carried to the Supreme Court (1817), he was placed in the front rank in his profession. In that court he ably argued many important cases, in which he exhibited superior skill and ability. In 1820 he was a member of the Massachusetts constitutional convention. He again entered Congress in 1823, when he made a famous speech on the Greek Revolution, and, as chairman of the judiciary committee, effected measures for a complete revision of the criminal law of the United States. While John Quincy Adams was President he was leader of the friends of the administration, first in the House and afterwards in the Senate, of which he was a member in 1827–39.

His celebrated speech in reply to Hayne, of South Carolina, delivered in the Senate in 1832, is considered the most correct and complete exposition ever given of the true powers and functions of the national government (see below). In 1839 he visited Europe, and in March, 1841, President Harrison appointed him Secretary of State, which office he held until May, 1843, when he retired from President Tyler's cabinet.

When Webster became Secretary of State under Harrison (March, 1841) he at once proposed to Great Britain a renewal of negotiations with the plan of settling the boundary question directly, rather than by methods thus far employed, at a line to be agreed on by the ministers of the two countries. Great Britain received the offer favorably, and appointed Lord Ashburton special minister with full powers to conclude a treaty covering all matters at issue between the two countries. Ashburton reached Washington in April, 1842, and in June the negotiations began in earnest.

There have been few instances in which negotiations ultimately successful have been carried on under greater difficulties. Besides the serious difference in the point of view of the two nations concerning some of the questions involved, a special obstacle to agreement lay in the fact that there were really four parties to be consulted instead of two; in addition to Webster and Ashburton, commissioners from the interested States of Massachusetts and of Maine also took part. The legislature of Maine had passed a resolution refusing to regard the acknowledgment of her claim to any portion of the disputed territory as an equivalent for the surrender of the rest. The conduct of these two States, together with that of New York in the case of McLeod, must have impressed on Webster the fact that the supporters of State rights were not all from the South; and if he had been called on to repeat in 1842 his speech of 1830 in reply to Hayne, he would doubtless have put into it an even stronger degree of earnestness and conviction. The saving feature of the situation lay in the mutual confidence and perfect frankness of Mr. Webster and Lord Ashburton towards each other, and in the assistance delicately given from time to time by President Tyler.

The object was at length successfully accomplished, through the so-called Webster-Ashburton treaty, dated August 9, 1842. The lines from the source of the St. Croix to the intersection of the St. Lawrence, and from the passage between Lakes Huron and Superior to the northwest corner of the Lake of the Woods, were agreed upon and carefully described, and a commission was provided for to survey and mark the division. The boundary as fixed was a line less advantageous

to the United States than that of the award of the king of the Netherlands. The claims of Massachusetts and Maine were satisfied by a payment of one hundred and fifty thousand dollars to each from the United States government, besides a share of what was known as the "disputed territory fund." The free navigation of certain waters along that part of the line which lay in the St. Lawrence and the Lakes, as well as of the St. John where it formed the boundary, was conceded to both parties; and an agreement was adopted whereby the people of that part of the upper valley of the St. John lying in Maine obtained an outlet for their lumber and agricultural produce to the sea. The boundary from the Connecticut River to the St. Lawrence was fixed at the forty-fifth parallel as determined by the survey completed in 1774, instead of the true forty-fifth, and the little strip of territory including the works at Rouse's Point was thus saved to the United States. Two other important provisions of the treaty related to the slave-trade and the extradition of criminals.

One interesting feature of the history of the treaty was what Lord Ashburton called "the battle of the maps." Among the mass of evidence concerning the boundary was a copy of a map which Jared Sparks had discovered in the French archives and sent to Mr. Webster for his use. This map, which was supposed to have accompanied a note from Benjamin Franklin to Vergennes, also found in the archives, had on it a line marked in red, apparently indicating the boundary according to the preliminary agreement of 1782, and hence became known as the "Red Line" map. The line as drawn was somewhat north of the forty-fifth parallel between the St. Lawrence and the head of the Connecticut, but ran south of the valley of the St. John, giving Great Britain more than she claimed. Webster did not show the map to Ashburton, but he did allow the Massachusetts and Maine commissioners to see it in order that they might understand the effect it would possibly have if the subject went again to arbitration. Subsequently there was found in the British Museum a copy of Mitchell's map which had been used in the negotiations of 1782, and which showed a line marked by King George III. as "the boundary described by Mr. Oswald," giving the United States a considerably larger share of the St. John Valley than the treaty of 1842 had allowed.

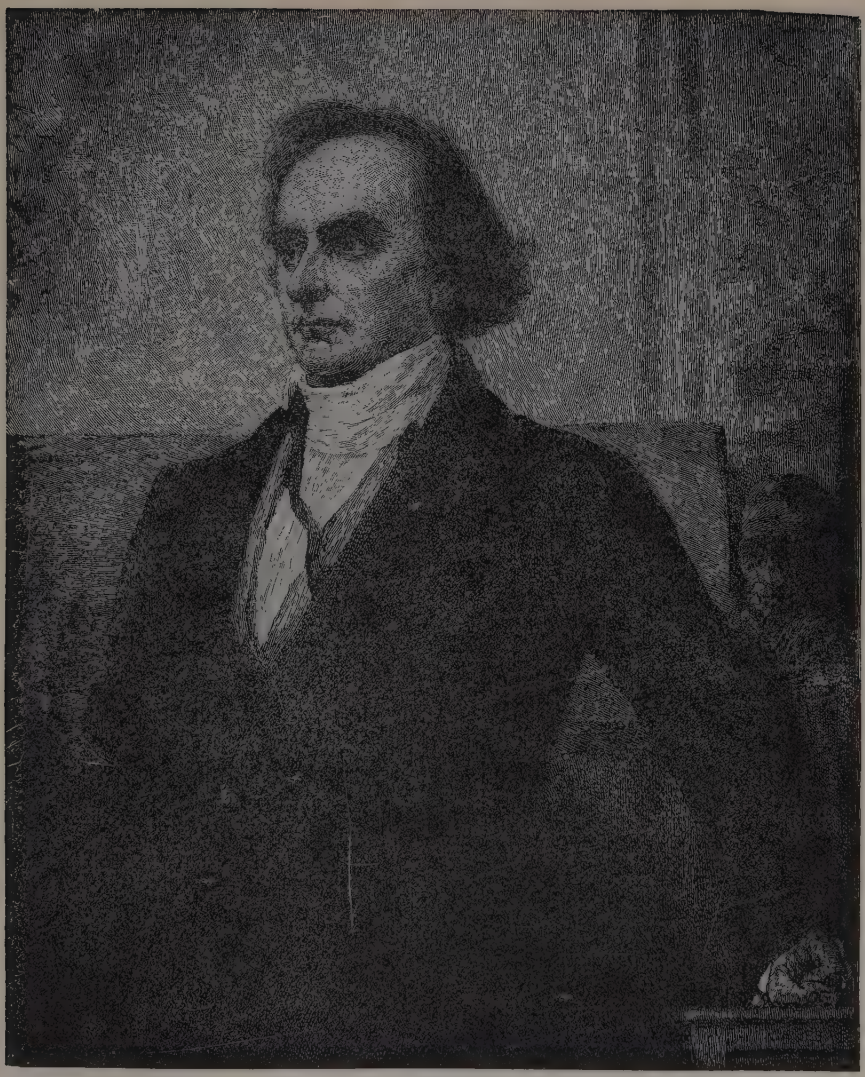
Again in the United States Senate, in 1845, he strongly opposed the annexation of Texas and the war with Mexico, and in 1850 he supported the Compromise measure (see OMNIBUS BILL, THE). By his concessions to the demands of the slave-holders, in a speech, March 7, 1850, he greatly weakened his influence in the free-labor States. He was called to the cabinet of Mr. Fillmore the same year as Secretary of State, which post he filled, with great distinction, until his death. Mr. Webster delivered many remarkable orations on occasions, notably on laying the corner-stone of the Bunker Hill monument (June 17, 1825), and on its completion (June 17, 1843). He died in Marshfield, Mass., Oct. 24, 1852.

Webster's Reply to Hayne.—The following is the text of Senator Webster's reply to the speech of SENATOR ROBERT Y. HAYNE (*q. v.*):

Mr. President,—When the mariner has been tossed for many days in thick weather and on an unknown sea, he naturally avails himself of the first pause in the storm, the earliest glance of the sun, to take his latitude, and ascertain how far the elements have driven him from his true course. Let us imitate this prudence, and before we float farther refer to the point from which we departed, that we may at least be able to conjecture where we now are. I ask for the reading of the resolution.

[The secretary read the resolution, as follows:

"Resolved, that the committee on public lands be instructed to inquire and report the quantity of the public lands remaining unsold within each State and Territory, and whether it be expedient to limit, for a certain period, the sales of the public lands to such lands only as have heretofore been offered for sale and are now subject to entry at the minimum price. And, also, whether the office of surveyor-general, and some of the land offices, may not be abolished without detriment to the public interest; or whether



DANIEL WEBSTER.

it be expedient to adopt measures to hasten the sales, and extend more rapidly the surveys of the public lands."]

We have thus heard, sir, what the resolution is, which is actually before us for consideration; and it will readily occur to every one that it is almost the only subject about which something has not been said in the speech, running through two days, by which the Senate has been now entertained by the gentleman from South Carolina. Every topic in the wide range of our public affairs, whether past or present—everything, general or local, whether belonging to national politics or party politics—seems to have attracted more or less of the honorable member's attention, save only the resolution before

us. He has spoken of everything but the public lands. They have escaped his notice. To that subject, in all his excursions, he has not paid even the cold respect of a passing glance.

When this debate, sir, was to be resumed, on Thursday morning, it so happened that it would have been convenient for me to be elsewhere. The honorable member, however, did not incline to put off the discussion to another day. He had a shot, he said, to return, and he wished to discharge it. That shot, sir, which it was kind thus to inform us was coming, that we might stand out of the way, or prepare ourselves to fall before it, and die with decency, has now been received. Under all advantages, and with expectation awakened by the tone which preceded it, it has been discharged, and has spent its force. It may become me to say no more of its effect than that, if nobody is found, after all, either killed or wounded by it, it is not the first time in the history of human affairs that the vigor and success of the war have not quite come up to the lofty and sounding phrase of the manifesto.

The gentleman, sir, in declining to postpone the debate, told the Senate, with the emphasis of his hand upon his heart, that there was something rankling here, which he wished to relieve. [Mr. Hayne rose and disclaimed having used the word "rankling."] It would not, Mr. President, be safe for the honorable member to appeal to those around him, upon the question whether he did, in fact, make use of that word. But he may have been unconscious of it. At any rate, it is enough that he disclaims it. But still, with or without the use of that particular word, he had yet something here, he said, of which he wished to rid himself by an immediate reply. In this respect, sir, I have a great advantage over the honorable gentleman. There is nothing here, sir, which gives me the slightest uneasiness; neither fear nor anger, nor that which is sometimes more troublesome than either—the consciousness of having been in the wrong. There is nothing either originating here or now received here by the gentleman's shot—nothing original, for I had not the slightest feeling of disrespect or unkindness towards the honorable member. Some passages, it is true, had occurred, since our acquaintance in this body, which I could have wished might have been otherwise; but I had used philosophy, and forgotten them. When the honorable member rose, in his first speech, I paid him the respect of attentive listening; and when he sat down, though surprised, and I must say even astonished, at some of his opinions, nothing was further from my intention than to commence any personal warfare; and through the whole of the few remarks I made in answer, I avoided, studiously and carefully, everything which I thought possible to be construed into disrespect. And, sir, while there is thus nothing originating here, which I wished at any time, or now wish, to discharge, I must repeat, also, that nothing has been received here, which rankles or in any way gives me annoyance. I will not accuse the honorable member of violating the rules of civilized war—I will not say that he poisoned his arrows. But whether his shafts were, or were not, dipped in that which would have caused rankling if they had reached, there was not, as it happened, quite strength enough in the bow to bring them to their mark. If he wishes now to find those shafts, he must look for them elsewhere; they will not be found fixed and quivering in the object at which they are aimed.

The honorable member complained that I had slept on his speech. I must have slept on it, or not slept at all. The moment the honorable member sat down, his friend from Missouri rose, and, with much honeyed commendation of the speech, suggested that the impressions which it had produced were too charming and delightful to be disturbed by other sentiments or other sounds, and proposed that the Senate should adjourn. Would it have been quite amiable in me, sir, to interrupt this excellent good-feeling? Must I not have been absolutely malicious, if I could have thrust myself forward to destroy sensations thus pleasing? Was it not much better and kinder, both to sleep upon them myself, and to allow others, also, the pleasure of sleeping upon them? But if it be meant, by sleeping upon his speech, that I took time to prepare a reply to it, it is quite a mistake; owing to other engagements, I could not employ

even the interval between the adjournment of the Senate and its meeting the next morning in attention to the subject of this debate. Nevertheless, sir, the mere matter of fact is undoubtedly true—I did sleep on the gentleman's speech, and slept soundly. And I slept equally well on his speech of yesterday, to which I am now replying. It is quite possible that, in this respect also, I possess some advantage over the honorable member, attributable, doubtless, to a cooler temperament on my part; for, in truth, I slept upon his speeches remarkably well. But the gentleman inquires why he was made the object of such a reply. Why was he singled out? If an attack had been made on the East, he, he assures us, did not begin it—it was the gentleman from Missouri. Sir, I answered the gentleman's speech because I happened to hear it; and because, also, I chose to give an answer to that speech, which, if unanswered, I thought most likely to produce injurious impressions. I did not stop to inquire who was the original drawer of the bill. I found a responsible endorser before me, and it was my purpose to hold him liable, and to bring him to his just responsibility without delay. But, sir, this interrogatory of the honorable member was only introductory to another. He proceeded to ask me whether I had turned upon him in this debate from consciousness that I should find an overmatch if I ventured on a contest with his friend from Missouri. If, sir, the honorable member, *ex gratia modestiæ*, had chosen thus to defer to his friend, and to pay him a compliment, without intentional disparagement to others, it would have been quite according to the friendly courtesies of debate, and not at all ungrateful to my own feelings. I am not one of those, sir, who esteem any tribute of regard, whether light and occasional, or more serious and deliberate, which may be bestowed on others as so much unjustly withholden from themselves. But the tone and manner of the gentleman's question forbid me thus to interpret it. I am not at liberty to consider it as nothing more than a civility to his friend. It had an air of taunt and disparagement, a little of the loftiness of asserted superiority, which does not allow me to pass it over without notice. It was put as a question for me to answer, and so put as if it were difficult for me to answer, whether I deemed the member from Missouri an overmatch for myself in debate here. It seems to me, sir, that is extraordinary language, and an extraordinary tone for the discussion of this body.

Matches and overmatches! Those terms are more applicable elsewhere than here, and fitter for other assemblies than this. Sir, the gentleman seems to forget where and what we are. This is a senate; a senate of equals; of men of individual honor and personal character, and of absolute independence. We know no masters; we acknowledge no dictators. This is a hall for mutual consultation and discussion, not an arena for the exhibition of champions. I offer myself, sir, as a match for no man; I throw the challenge of debate at no man's feet. But then, sir, since the honorable member has put the question in a manner that calls for an answer, I will give him an answer; and I tell him that, holding myself to be the humblest of the members here, I yet know nothing in the arm of his friend from Missouri, either alone or when aided by the arm of his friend from South Carolina, that need deter even me from espousing whatever opinions I may choose to espouse, from debating whenever I may choose to debate, or from speaking whatever I may see fit to say on the floor of the Senate. Sir, when uttered as matter of commendation or compliment, I should dissent from nothing which the honorable member might say of his friend. Still less do I put forth any pretensions of my own. But when put to me as matter of taunt, I throw it back, and say to the gentleman that he could possibly say nothing less likely than such a comparison to wound my pride of personal character. The anger of its tone rescued the remark from intentional irony, which otherwise, probably, would have been its general acceptation. But, sir, if it be imagined that by this mutual quotation and commendation; if it be supposed that, by casting the characters of the drama, assigning to each his part—to one the attack, to another the cry of onset—or if it be thought that by a loud and empty vaunt of anticipated victory any laurels are to be won here;

if it be imagined, especially, that any or all these things will shake any purpose of mine, I can tell the honorable member, once for all, that he is greatly mistaken, and that he is dealing with one of whose temper and character he has yet much to learn. Sir, I shall not allow myself, on this occasion—I hope on no occasion—to be betrayed into a loss of temper; but if provoked, as I trust I shall never allow myself to be, into crimination and recrimination, the honorable member may, perhaps, find that in that contest there will be blows to take as well as blows to give; that others can state comparisons as significant, at least, as his own; and that his impunity may, perhaps, demand of him whatever powers of taunt and sarcasm he may possess. I commend him to a prudent husbandry of his resources.

But, sir, the coalition! The coalition! Ay, "the murdered coalition!" The gentleman asks if I were led or frightened into this debate by the sceptre of the coalition. "Was it the ghost of the murdered coalition," he exclaims, "which haunted the member from Massachusetts, and which, like the ghost of Banquo, would never down?" "The murdered coalition!" Sir, this charge of a coalition, in reference to the late administration, is not original with the honorable member. It did not spring up in the Senate. Whether as a fact, as an argument, or as an embellishment, it is all borrowed. He adopts it, indeed, from a very low origin, and a still lower present condition. It is one of the thousand calumnies with which the press teemed during an excited political canvass. It was a charge of which there was not only no proof or probability, but which was, in itself, wholly impossible to be true. No man of common information ever believed a syllable of it. Yet it was of that class of falsehoods which, by continued repetition through all the organs of detraction and abuse, are capable of misleading those who are already far misled, and of further fanning passion already kindling into flame. Doubtless it served its day, and, in a greater or less degree, the end designed by it. Having done that, it has sunk into the general mass of stale and loathed calumnies. It is the very cast-off slough of a polluted and shameless press. Incapable of further mischief, it lies in the sewer, lifeless and despised. It is not now, sir, in the power of the honorable member to give it dignity or decency, by attempting to elevate it, and to introduce it into the Senate. He cannot change it from what it is—an object of general disgust and scorn. On the contrary, the contact, if he choose to touch it, is more likely to drag him down, down, to the place where it lies itself.

But, sir, the honorable member was not, for other reasons, entirely happy in his allusion to the story of Banquo's murder and Banquo's ghost. It was not, I think, the friends, but the enemies of the murdered Banquo at whose bidding his spirit would not down. The honorable gentleman is fresh in his reading of the English classics, and can put me right if I am wrong; but according to my poor recollection, it was at those who had begun with caresses, and ended with foul and treacherous murder, that the gory locks were shaken. The ghost of Banquo, like that of Hamlet, was an honest ghost. It disturbed no innocent man. It knew where its appearance would strike terror, and who would cry out, "A ghost!" It made itself visible in the right quarter, and compelled the guilty, and the conscience-smitten, and none others, to start, with,

> "Prithee, see there! behold!—look! lo!
> If I stand here, I saw him!"

Their eyeballs were seared—was it not so, sir?—who had thought to shield themselves by concealing their own hands, and laying the imputation of the crime on a low and hireling agency in wickedness; who had vainly attempted to stifle the workings of their own coward consciences by ejaculating, through white lips and chattering teeth, "Thou canst not say I did it!" I have misread the great poet if it was those who had in no way partaken in the deed of the death, who either found that they were, or feared that they should be, pushed from their stools by the ghost of the slain, or who cried out to a spectre created by their own fears, and their own remorse, "Avaunt! and quit our sight!"

There is another particular, sir, in which the honorable member's quick perception of resemblances might, I should think, have

seen something in the story of Banquo, making it not altogether a subject of the most pleasant contemplation. Those who murdered Banquo, what did they win by it? Substantial good? Permanent power? Or disappointment, rather, and sore mortification—dust and ashes—the common fate of vaulting ambition overleaping itself? Did not even-handed justice, ere long, commend the poisoned chalice to their own lips? Did they not soon find that for another they had "filled their mind"?—that their ambition, though apparently for the moment successful, had but put a barren sceptre in their grasp? Ay, sir,—

"A barren sceptre in their gripe,
Thence to be wrenched by an unlineal hand,
No son of theirs succeeding."

Sir, I need pursue the allusion no further. I leave the honorable gentleman to run it out at his leisure, and to derive from it all the gratification it is calculated to administer. If he finds himself pleased with the associations, and prepared to be quite satisfied, though the parallel should be entirely completed, I had almost said I am satisfied also—but that I shall think of. Yes, sir, I will think of that.

In the course of my observations the other day, Mr. President, I paid a passing tribute of respect to a very worthy man, Mr. Dane, of Massachusetts. It so happened that he drew the ordinance of 1787 for the government of the Northwestern Territory. A man of so much ability, and so little pretence; of so great a capacity to do good, and so unmixed a disposition to do it for its own sake; a gentleman who acted an important part, forty years ago, in a measure the influence of which is still deeply felt in the very matter which was the subject of debate, might, I thought, receive from me a commendatory recognition.

But the honorable member was inclined to be facetious on the subject. He was rather disposed to make it a matter of ridicule that I had introduced into the debate the name of one Nathan Dane, of whom he assures us he had never heard before. Sir, if the honorable member had never before heard of Mr. Dane, I am sorry for it. It shows him less acquainted with the public men of the country than I had supposed. Let me tell him, however, that a sneer from him at the mention of the name of Mr. Dane is in bad taste. It may well be a high mark of ambition, sir, either with the honorable gentleman or myself, to accomplish as much to make our names known to advantage, and remembered with gratitude, as Mr. Dane has accomplished. But the truth is, sir, I suspect that Mr. Dane lives a little too far north. He is of Massachusetts, and too near the north star to be reached by the honorable gentleman's telescope. If his sphere had happened to range south of Mason and Dixon's line, he might, probably, have come within the scope of his vision!

I spoke, sir, of the ordinance of 1787, which prohibited slavery in all future times northwest of the Ohio, as a measure of great wisdom and foresight, and one which had been attended with highly beneficial and permanent consequences. I supposed that on this point no two gentlemen in the Senate could entertain different opinions. But the simple expression of this sentiment has led the gentleman, not only into a labored defence of slavery in the abstract, and on principle, but also into a warm accusation against me, as having attacked the system of domestic slavery now existing in the Southern States. For all this there was not the slightest foundation in anything said or intimated by me. I did not utter a single word which any ingenuity could torture into an attack on the slavery of the South. I said only that it was highly wise and useful in legislating for the Northwestern country, while it was yet a wilderness, to prohibit the introduction of slaves; and added that I presumed, in the neighboring State of Kentucky, there was no reflecting and intelligent gentleman who would doubt that, if the same prohibition had been extended, at the same early period, over that commonwealth, her strength and population would at this day have been far greater than they are. If these opinions be thought doubtful, they are, nevertheless, I trust, neither extraordinary nor disrespectful. They attack nobody and menace nobody. And yet, sir, the gentleman's optics have discovered, even in the mere expression of this sentiment, what he calls the very spirit of the

Missouri question. He represents me as making an onset on the whole South, and manifesting a spirit which would interfere with and disturb their domestic condition. Sir, this injustice no otherwise surprises me than as it is here done, and done without the slightest pretence of ground for it. I say it only surprises me as being done here; for I know full well that it is and has been the settled policy of some persons in the South for years to represent the people of the North as disposed to interfere with them in their own exclusive and peculiar concerns. This is a delicate and sensitive point in Southern feeling, and of late years it has always been touched, and generally with effect, whenever the object has been to unite the whole South against Northern men or Northern measures. This feeling, always kept alive, and maintained at too intense a heat to admit discrimination or reflection, is a lever of great power in our political machine. It moves vast bodies, and gives to them one and the same direction. But the feeling is without adequate cause, and the suspicion which exists wholly groundless. There is not, and never has been, a disposition in the North to interfere with these interests of the South. Such interference has never been supposed to be within the power of government, nor has it been in any way attempted. It has always been regarded as a matter of domestic policy, left with the States themselves, and with which the federal government had nothing to do. Certainly, sir, I am, and ever have been, of that opinion. The gentleman, indeed, argues that slavery in the abstract is no evil. Most assuredly I need not say I differ with him altogether and most widely on that point. I regard domestic slavery as one of the greatest evils, both moral and political. But, though it be a malady, and whether it be curable, and if so, by what means; or, on the other hand, whether it be the *vulnus immedicabile* of the social system, I leave it to those whose right and duty it is to inquire and to decide. And this I believe, sir, is, and uniformly has been, the sentiment of the North. Let us look a little at the history of this matter.

When the present Constitution was submitted for the ratification of the people, there were those who imagined that the powers of the government which it proposed to establish might, perhaps, in some possible mode, be exerted in measures tending to the abolition of slavery. This suggestion would, of course, attract much attention in the Southern conventions. In that of Virginia, Governor Randolph said: "I hope there is none here who, considering the subject in the calm light of philosophy, will make an objection dishonorable to Virginia—that, at the moment they are securing the rights of their citizens, an objection is started that there is a spark of hope that those unfortunate men now held in bondage may, by the operation of the general government, be made free."

At the very first Congress petitions on the subject were presented, if I mistake not, from different States. The Pennsylvania Society for Promoting the Abolition of Slavery took a lead and laid before Congress a memorial, praying Congress to promote the abolition by such powers as it possessed. This memorial was referred, in the House of Representatives, to a select committee, consisting of Mr. Foster, of New Hampshire; Mr. Gerry, of Massachusetts; Mr. Huntington, of Connecticut; Mr. Lawrence, of New York; Mr. Sinnickson, of New Jersey; Mr. Hartley, of Pennsylvania, and Mr. Parker, of Virginia; all of them, sir, as you will observe, Northern men, but the last. This committee made a report, which was committed to a committee of the whole House, and there considered and discussed on several days; and being amended, although in no material respect, it was made to express three distinct propositions on the subjects of slavery and the slave-trade. First, in the words of the Constitution, that Congress could not, prior to the year 1808, prohibit the migration or importation of such persons as any of the States then existing should think proper to admit. Second, that Congress had authority to restrain the citizens of the United States from carrying on the African slave-trade for the purpose of supplying foreign countries. On this proposition our early laws against those who engage in that traffic are founded. The third proposition, and that which bears on the present question, was expressed in the following terms:

"Resolved, that Congress have no authority to interfere in the emancipation of slaves, or in the treatment of them in any of the States: it remaining with the several States alone to provide rules and regulations therein, which humanity and true policy may require."

This resolution received the sanction of the House of Representatives so early as March, 1790. And now, sir, the honorable member will allow me to remind him that not only were the select committee who reported the resolution, with a single exception, all Northern men, but also that of the members then composing the House of Representatives, a large majority, I believe nearly two-thirds, were Northern men also.

The House agreed to insert this resolution in its journal; and from that day to this it has never been maintained or contended that Congress had any authority to regulate or interfere with the condition of slaves in the several States. No Northern gentleman, to my knowledge, has moved any such question in either House of Congress.

The fears of the South, whatever fears they might have entertained, were allayed and quieted by this early decision; and so remained till they were excited afresh, without cause, but for collateral and indirect purposes. When it became necessary, or was thought so, by some political persons, to find an unvarying ground for the exclusion of Northern men from confidence and from lead in the affairs of the republic, then, and not till then, the cry was raised and the feeling industriously excited that the influence of Northern men in the public councils would endanger the relation of master and slave. For myself I claim no other merit than that this gross and enormous injustice towards the whole North has not wrought upon me to change my opinions or my political conduct. I hope I am above violating my principles, even under the smart of injury and false imputations. Unjust suspicions and undeserved reproach, whatever pain I may experience from them, will not induce me, I trust, nevertheless, to overstep the limits of constitutional duty or to encroach on the rights of others. The domestic slavery of the South I leave where I find it—in the hands of their own governments. It is their affair, not mine. Nor do I complain of the peculiar effect which the magnitude of that population has had in the distribution of power under this federal government. We know, sir, that the representation of the States in the other House is not equal. We know that great advantage, in that respect, is enjoyed by the slave-holding States; and we know, too, that the intended equivalent for that advantage—that is to say, the imposition of direct taxes in the same ratio has become merely nominal; the habit of the government being almost invariably to collect its revenues from other sources and in other modes. Nevertheless, I do not complain, nor would I countenance any movement to alter this arrangement of representation. It is the original bargain, the compact—let it stand; let the advantage of it be fully enjoyed. The Union itself is too full of benefit to be hazarded in propositions for changing its original basis. I go for the Constitution as it is, and for the Union as it is. But I am resolved not to submit, in silence, to accusations, either against myself individually or against the North —wholly unfounded and unjust accusations which impute to us a disposition to evade the constitutional compact, and to extend the power of the government over the internal laws and domestic condition of the States. All such accusations, wherever and whenever made, all insinuations of the existence of any such purposes, I know and feel to be groundless and injurious. And we must confide in Southern gentlemen themselves; we must trust to those whose integrity of heart and magnanimity of feeling will lead them to a desire to maintain and disseminate truth, and who possess the means of its diffusion with the Southern public; we must leave it to them to disabuse that public of its prejudices. But, in the mean time, for my own part, I shall continue to act justly, whether those towards whom justice is exercised receive it with candor or with contumely.

Having had occasion to recur to the ordinance of 1787, in order to defend myself against the inferences which the honorable member has chosen to draw from my former observations on the subject,

I am not willing now entirely to take leave of it without another remark. It need hardly be said that that paper expresses just sentiments on the great subject of civil and religious liberty. Such sentiments were common, and abound in all our state papers of that day. But this ordinance did that which was not so common, and which is not, even now, universal; that is, it set forth and declared, as a high and binding duty of government itself, to encourage schools and advance the means of education; on the plain reason that religion, morality, and knowledge are necessary to good government and to the happiness of mankind. One observation further. The important provision incorporated into the Constitution of the United States, and several of the States, and recently, as we have seen, adopted into the reformed constitution of Virginia, restraining legislative power, in questions of private right, and from impairing the obligation of contracts, is first introduced and established, as far as I am informed, as matter of express written constitutional law, in this ordinance of 1787. And I must add, also, in regard to the author of the ordinance, who has not had the happiness to attract the gentleman's notice heretofore, nor to avoid his sarcasm now, that he was chairman of that select committee of the old Congress, whose report first expressed the strong sense of that body, that the old confederation was not adequate to the exigencies of the country, and recommending to the States to send delegates to the convention which formed the present Constitution.

An attempt has been made to transfer from the North to the South the honor of this exclusion of slavery from the Northwestern Territory. The journal, without argument or comment, refutes such attempt. The session of Virginia was held March, 1784. On April 19, following, a committee, consisting of Messrs. Jefferson, Chase, and Howell, reported a plan for a temporary government of the Territory, in which was this article: "That after the year 1800 there shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in any of the said States, otherwise than in punishment of crimes, whereof the party shall have been convicted." Mr. Speight, of North Carolina, moved to strike out this paragraph. The question was put, according to the form then practised: "Shall these words stand as part of the plan," etc. New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania — seven States — voted in the affirmative; Maryland, Virginia, and South Carolina in the negative. North Carolina was divided. As the consent of nine States was necessary, the words could not stand, and were struck out accordingly. Mr. Jefferson voted for the clause, but was overruled by his colleagues.

In March of the next year (1785), Mr. King, of Massachusetts, seconded by Mr. Ellery, of Rhode Island, proposed the formerly rejected article, with this addition: "And that this regulation shall be an article of compact, and remain a fundamental principle of the Constitution between the thirteen original States and each of the States described in the resolve," etc. On this clause, which provided the adequate and thorough security, the eight Northern States at that time voted affirmatively, and the four Southern States negatively. The votes of nine States were not yet obtained, and thus the provision was again rejected by the Southern States. The perseverance of the North held out, and two years afterwards the object was attained. It is no derogation from the credit, whatever that may be, of drawing the ordinance, that its principles had before been prepared and discussed in the form of resolution. If one should reason in that way, what would become of the distinguished honor of the author of the Declaration of Independence? There is not a sentiment in that paper which had not been voted and resolved in the assemblies, and other popular bodies in the country, over and over again.

But the honorable member has now found out that this gentleman, Mr. Dane, was a member of the Hartford Convention. However uninformed the honorable member may be of characters and occurrences at the North, it would seem that he has at his elbows, on this occasion, some high-minded and lofty spirit, some magnanimous and true-hearted monitor, possessing the means of local knowledge, and ready

to supply the honorable member with everything, down even to forgotten and moth-eaten twopenny pamphlets, which may be used to the disadvantage of his own country. But, as to the Hartford Convention, sir, allow me to say that the proceedings of that body seem now to be less read and studied in New England than farther south. They appear to be looked to, not in New England, but elsewhere, for the purpose of seeing how far they may serve as a precedent. But they will not answer the purpose—they are quite too tame. The latitude in which they originated was too cold. Other conventions, of more recent existence, have gone a whole bar's length beyond it. The learned doctors of Colleton and Abbeville have pushed their commentaries on the Hartford collect so far that the original text writers are thrown entirely into the shade. I have nothing to do, sir, with the Hartford Convention. Its journal, which the gentleman has quoted, I have never read. So far as the honorable member may discover in its proceedings a spirit in any degree resembling that which was avowed and justified in those other conventions to which I have alluded, or so far as those proceedings can be shown to be disloyal to the Constitution, or tending to disunion, so far I shall be as ready as any one to bestow on them reprehension and censure.

Having dwelt long on this convention, and other occurrences of that day, in the hope, probably (which will not be gratified), that I should leave the course of this debate to follow him at length in those excursions, the honorable member returned, and attempted another object. He referred to a speech of mine in the other House, the same which I had occasion to allude to myself the other day; and has quoted a passage or two from it, with a bold though uneasy and laboring air of confidence, as if he had detected in me an inconsistency. Judging from the gentleman's manner, a stranger to the course of the debate, and to the point in discussion, would have imagined, from so triumphant a tone, that the honorable member was about to overwhelm me with a manifest contradiction. Any one who heard him—and who had not heard what I had, in fact, previously said — must have thought me routed and discomfited, as the gentleman had promised. Sir, a breath blows all this triumph away. There is not the slightest difference in the sentiments of my remarks on the two occasions. What I said here on Wednesday is in exact accordance with the opinions expressed by me in the other House in 1825. Though the gentleman had the metaphysics of Hudibras—though he were able

> "to sever and divide
> A hair 'twixt north and northwest side,"

he could not yet insert his metaphysical scissors between the fair readings of my remarks in 1825 and what I said here last week. There is not only no contradiction, no difference, but, in truth, too exact a similarity, both in thought and language, to be entirely in just taste. I had myself quoted the same speech; had recurred to it, and spoke with it open before me; and much of what I said was little more than a repetition from it. In order to make finishing work with this alleged contradiction, permit me to recur to the origin of this debate and review its course. This seems expedient, and may be done as well now as at any time. Well, then, its history is this: The honorable member from Connecticut moved a resolution, which constituted the first branch of that which is now before us—that is to say, a resolution instructing the committee on public lands to inquire into the expediency of limiting, for a certain period, the sales of public lands to such as have heretofore been offered for sale; and whether sundry offices connected with the sales of the lands might not be abolished without detriment to the public service.

In the progress of the discussion which arose on this resolution, an honorable member from New Hampshire moved to amend the resolution so as entirely to reverse its object—that is, to strike it all out, and insert a direction to the committee to inquire into the expediency of adopting measures to hasten the sales and extend more rapidly the surveys of the lands.

The honorable member from Maine (Mr. Sprague) suggested that both these propositions might well enough go for consideration to the committee; and in

this state of the question the member from South Carolina addressed the Senate in his first speech. He rose, he said, to give us his own free thoughts on the public lands. I saw him rise with pleasure, and listened with expectation, though before he concluded I was filled with surprise. Certainly I was never more surprised than to find him following up, to the extent he did, the sentiments and opinions which the gentleman from Missouri had put forth, and which it is known he has long entertained.

I need not repeat, at large, the general topics of the honorable gentleman's speech. When he said, yesterday, that he did not attack the Eastern States he certainly must have forgotten not only particular remarks, but the whole drift and tenor of his speech; unless he means by not attacking that he did not commence hostilities, but that another had preceded him in the attack. He, in the first place, disapproved of the whole course of the government for forty years in regard to its dispositions of the public land; and then, turning northward and eastward, and fancying he had found a cause for alleged narrowness and niggardliness in the "accursed policy" of the tariff, to which he represented the people of New England as wedded, he went on for a full hour with remarks the whole scope of which was to exhibit the results of this policy in feelings and in measures unfavorable to the West. I thought his opinions unfounded and erroneous, as to the general course of the government, and ventured to reply to them.

The gentleman had remarked on the analogy of other cases, and quoted the conduct of European governments towards their own subjects settling on this continent, as in point to show that we had been harsh and rigid in selling when we should have given the public lands to settlers. I thought the honorable member had suffered his judgment to be betrayed by a false analogy; that he was struck with an appearance of resemblance where there was no real similitude. I think so still. The first settlers of North America were enterprising spirits, engaged in private adventure, or fleeing from tyranny at home. When arrived here they were forgotten by the mother-country, or remembered only to be oppressed. Carried away again by the appearance of analogy, or struck with the eloquence of the passage, the honorable member yesterday observed that the conduct of government towards the Western emigrants, or my representation of it, brought to his mind a celebrated speech in the British Parliament. It was, sir, the speech of Colonel Barré. On the question of the Stamp Act, or tea tax, I forget which, Colonel Barré had heard a member on the treasury bench argue that the people of the United States, being British colonists, planted by the maternal care, nourished by the indulgence, and protected by the arms of England, would not grudge their mite to relieve the mother-country from the heavy burden under which she groaned. The language of Colonel Barré, in reply to this, was, "They planted by your care? Your oppression planted them in America. They fled from your tyranny, and grew by your neglect of them. So soon as you began to care for them, you showed your care by sending persons to spy out their liberties, misrepresent their character, prey upon them, and eat out their substance."

And now does the honorable gentleman mean to maintain that language like this is applicable to the conduct of the government of the United States towards the Western emigrants, or to any representation given by me of that conduct? Were the settlers in the West driven thither by our oppression? Have they flourished only by our neglect of them? Has the government done nothing but to prey upon them; and eat out their substance? Sir, this fervid eloquence of the British speaker, just when and where it was uttered, and fit to remain an exercise for the schools, is not a little out of place, when it was brought thence to be applied here, to the conduct of our own country towards her own citizens. From America to England it may be true; from Americans to their own government it would be strange language. Let us leave it to be recited and declaimed by our boys against a foreign nation; not introduce it here, to recite and declaim ourselves against our own.

But I come to the point of the alleged contradiction. In my remarks on Wednes-

day, I contended that we could not give away gratuitously all the public lands; that we held them in trust; that the government had solemnly pledged itself to dispose of them as a common fund for the common benefit, and to sell and settle them as its discretion should dictate. Now, sir, what contradiction does the gentlemen find to this sentiment in the speech of 1825? He quotes me as having then said that we ought not to hug these lands as a very great treasure. Very well, sir. Supposing me to be accurately reported in that expression, what is the contradiction? I have not now said that we should hug these lands as a favorite source of pecuniary income. No such thing. It is not my view. What I have said, and what I do say, is that they are a common fund—to be disposed of for the common benefit—to be sold at low prices, for the accommodation of settlers, keeping the object of settling the lands as much in view as that of raising money from them. This I say now, and this I have always said. Is this hugging them as a favorite treasure? Is there no difference between hugging and hoarding this fund, on the one hand as a great treasure, and on the other of disposing of it at low prices, placing the proceeds in the general treasury of the Union? My opinion is that as much is to be made of the land as fairly and reasonably may be, selling it all the while at such rates as to give the fullest effect to settlement. This is not giving it all away to the States, as the gentleman would propose; nor is it hugging the fund closely and tenaciously, as a favorite treasure; but it is, in my judgment, a just and wise policy, perfectly according with all the various duties which rest on government. So much for my contradiction. And what is it? Where is the ground of the gentleman's triumph? What inconsistency, in word or doctrine, has he been able to detect? Sir, if this be a sample of that discomfiture with which the honorable gentleman threatened me, commend me to the word discomfiture for the rest of my life.

But, after all, that is not the point of the debate; and I must bring the gentleman back to that which is the point.

The real question between me and him is, Where has the doctrine been advanced, at the South or the East, that the population of the West should be retarded, or, at least, need not be hastened, on account of its effect to drain off the people from the Atlantic States? Is this doctrine, as has been alleged, of Eastern origin? That is the question. Has the gentleman found anything by which he can make good his accusation? I submit to the Senate that he has entirely failed; and, as far as this debate has shown, the only person who has advanced such sentiments is a gentleman from South Carolina, and a friend to the honorable member himself. The honorable gentleman has given no answer to this; there is none which can be given. This simple fact, while it requires no comment to enforce it, defies all argument to refute it. I could refer to the speeches of another Southern gentleman, in years before, of the same general character, and to the same effect, as that which has been quoted; but I will not consume the time of the Senate by the reading of them.

So then, sir, New England is guiltless of the policy of retarding Western population, and of all envy and jealousy of the growth of the new States. Whatever there be of that policy in the country, no part of it is hers. If it has a local habitation, the honorable member has probably seen, by this time, where he is to look for it; and if it now has received a name, he himself has christened it.

We approach, at length, sir, to a more important part of the honorable gentleman's observations. Since it does not accord with my views of justice and policy to vote away the public lands altogether, as mere matter of gratuity, I am asked by the honorable gentleman on what ground it is that I consent to give them away in particular instances. How, he inquires, do I reconcile with these professed sentiments my support of measures appropriating portions of the lands to particular roads, particular rivers, and particular institutions of education in the West? This leads, sir, to the real and wide difference in political opinions between the honorable gentleman and myself. On my part, I look upon all these objects as connected with the common good, fairly

embraced in its object and its terms. He, on the contrary, deems them all, if good at all, only local good. This is our difference. The interrogatory which he proceeded to put at once explains this difference. "What interest?" asks he, "has South Carolina in a canal in Ohio?" Sir, this very question is full of significance. It develops the gentleman's whole political system; and its answer expounds mine. Here we differ *toto cœlo*. I look upon a road over the Alleghany, a canal round the falls of the Ohio, or a canal or railway from the Atlantic to the Western waters, as being objects large and extensive enough to be fairly said to be for the common benefit. The gentleman thinks otherwise, and this is the key to open his construction of the powers of the government. He may well ask, upon his system, What interest has South Carolina in a canal in Ohio? On that system, it is true, she has no interest. On that system, Ohio and Carolina are different governments and different countries, connected here, it is true, by some slight and ill-defined bond of union, but in all main respects separate and diverse. On that system, Carolina has no more interest in a canal in Ohio than in Mexico. The gentleman, therefore, only follows out his own principles; he does no more than arrive at the natural conclusions of his own doctrines; he only announces the true results of that creed which he has adopted himself, and would persuade others to adopt, when he thus declares that South Carolina has no interest in a public work in Ohio. Sir, we narrow-minded people in New England do not reason thus. Our notion of things is entirely different. We look upon the States, not as separated, but as united. We love to dwell on that Union, and on the mutual happiness which it has so much promoted, and the common renown which it has so greatly contributed to acquire. In our contemplation, Carolina and Ohio are parts of the same country—States united under the same general government, having common interests, associated, intermingled. In whatever is within the proper sphere of the constitutional power of this government, we look upon the States as one. We do not impose geographical limits to our patriotic feelings or regard; we do not follow rivers and mountains, and lines of latitude, to find boundaries beyond which public improvements do not benefit us. We do come here as agents and representatives of those narrow-minded and selfish men of New England, consider ourselves as bound to regard, with equal eye, the good of the whole, in whatever is within our power of legislation. Sir, if a railroad or a canal, beginning in South Carolina, and ending in South Carolina, appeared to me to be of national importance and national magnitude, believing, as I do, that the power of government extends to the encouragement of works of that description, if I were to stand up here and ask, "What interest has Massachusetts in a railroad in South Carolina?" I should not be willing to face my constituents. These same narrow-minded men would tell me that they had sent me to act for the whole country, and that one who possessed too little comprehension, either of intellect or feeling — one who was not large enough in mind and heart to embrace the whole—was not fit to be intrusted with the interest of any part. Sir, I do not desire to enlarge the powers of the government by unjustifiable construction, nor to exercise any not within a fair interpretation. But when it is believed that a power does exist, then it is, in my judgment, to be exercised for the general benefit of the whole; so far as respects the exercise of such a power, the States are one. It was the very object of the Constitution to create unity of interests to the extent of the powers of the general government. In war and peace we are one; in commerce one; because the authority of the general government reaches to war and peace, and to regulation of commerce. I have never seen any more difficulty in erecting light-houses on the lakes than on the ocean, in improving the harbors of inland seas than if they were within the ebb and flow of the tide; or of removing obstructions in the vast streams of the West, more than in any other work to facilitate commerce on the Atlantic coast. If there be power for one, there is power also for the other; and they are all and equally for the country.

There are other objects, apparently more local, or the benefit of which is less gen-

eral, towards which, nevertheless, I have concurred with others to give aid by donations of land. It is proposed to construct a road in or through one of the new States in which this government possesses large quantities of land. Have the United States no right, as a great land untaxed proprietor—are they under no obligation — to contribute to an object thus calculated to promote the common good of all the proprietors, themselves included? And even with respect to education, which is the extreme case, let the question be considered. In the first place, as we have seen, it was made matter of compact with these States that they should do their part to promote education. In the next place, our whole system of land laws proceeds on the idea that education is for the common good; because, in every division, a certain portion is uniformly reserved and appropriated for the use of schools. And, finally, have not these new States singularly strong claims, founded on the ground already stated, that the government is a great untaxed proprietor in the ownership of the soil? It is a consideration of great importance that probably there is in no part of the country, or of the world, so great a call for the means of education as in those new States, owing to the vast number of persons within those ages in which education and instruction are usually received, if received at all. This is the mutual consequence of recency of settlement and rapid increase. The census of these States shows how great a proportion of the whole population occupies the classes between infancy and manhood. These are the wide fields, and here is the deep and quick soil for the seeds of knowledge and virtue; and this is the favored season, the spring-time for sowing them. Let them be disseminated without stint. Let them be scattered with a bountiful broadcast. Whatever the government can fairly do towards these objects, in my opinion, ought to be done.

These, sir, are the grounds, succinctly stated, on which my votes for grants of land for particular objects rest, while I maintain, at the same time, that it is all a common fund, for the common benefit. And reasons like these, I presume, have influenced the votes of other gentlemen from New England. Those who have a different view of the powers of the government, of course, come to different conclusions on these as on other questions. I observed, when speaking on this subject before, that if we looked to any measure, whether for a road, a canal, or anything else intended for the improvement of the West, it would be found that if the New England ayes were struck out of the list of votes, the Southern noes would always have rejected the measure. The truth of this has not been denied, and cannot be denied. In stating this, I thought it just to ascribe it to the constitutional scruples of the South, rather than to any other less favorable or less charitable cause. But no sooner had I done this than the honorable gentleman asks if I reproach him and his friends with their constitutional scruples. Sir, I reproach nobody. I stated a fact, and gave the most respectful reason for it that occurred to me. The gentleman cannot deny the fact—he may, if he choose, disclaim the reason. It is not long since I had occasion, in presenting a petition from his own State, to account for its being intrusted to my hands by saying that the constitutional opinions of the gentleman and his worthy colleague prevented them from supporting it. Sir, did I state this as a matter of reproach? Far from it. Did I attempt to find any other cause than an honest one for these scruples? Sir, I did not. It did not become me to doubt, nor to insinuate that the gentleman had either changed his sentiments or that he had made up a set of constitutional opinions accommodated to any particular combination of political occurrences. Had I done so, I would have felt that while I was entitled to little respect in thus questioning other people's motives, I justified the whole world in suspecting my own.

But how has the gentleman returned this respect for others' opinions? His own candor and justice, how have they been exhibited towards the motives of others, while he has been at so much pains to maintain—what nobody has disputed—the purity of his own? Why, sir, he has asked, when, and how, and why New England votes were found going for measures favorable to the West; he has

demanded to be informed whether all this did not begin in 1825, and while the election of President was still pending. Sir, to these questions retort would be justified; and it is both cogent and at hand. Nevertheless, I will answer the inquiry not by retort, but by facts. I will tell the gentleman when, and how, and why New England has supported measures favorable to the West. I have already referred to the early history of the government—to the first acquisition of the lands—to the original laws for disposing of them and for governing the Territories where they lie; and have shown the influence of New England men and New England principles in all these leading measures. I should not be pardoned were I to go over that ground again. Coming to more recent times, and to measures of a less general character, I have endeavored to prove that everything of this kind designed for Western improvement has depended on the votes of New England. All this is true beyond the power of contradiction.

And now, sir, there are two measures to which I will refer, not so ancient as to belong to the early history of the public lands, and not so recent as to be on this side of the period when the gentleman charitably imagines a new direction may have been given to New England feeling and New England votes. These measures, and the New England votes in support of them, may be taken as samples and specimens of all the rest. In 1820—observe, Mr. President, in 1820—the people of the West besought Congress for a reduction in the price of lands. In favor of that reduction, New England, with a delegation of forty members in the other House, gave thirty-three votes, and only one against it. The four Southern States, with fifty members, gave thirty-two votes for it and seven against it. Again, in 1821—observe again, sir, the time—the law passed for the relief of the purchasers of the public lands. This was a measure of vital importance to the West, and more especially to the Southwest. It authorized the relinquishment of contracts for lands which had been entered into at high prices, and a reduction, in other cases, of not less than 37½ per cent. on the purchase money. Many millions of dollars—six or seven, I believe, at least; probably much more—were relinquished by this law. On this bill New England, with her forty members, gave more affirmative votes than four Southern States with their fifty-two or three members. These two are far the most important measures respecting the public lands which have been adopted within the last twenty years. They took place in 1820 and 1821. That is the time when. And as to the manner how, the gentleman already sees that it was by voting in solid column for the required relief. And, lastly, as to the cause why, I tell the gentleman it was because the members from New England thought the measures just and salutary; because they entertained towards the West neither envy, hatred, nor malice; because they deemed it becoming them, as just and enlightened public men, to meet the exigency which had arisen in the West with the appropriate measure of relief; because they felt it due to their own characters, and the characters of their New England predecessors in this government, to act towards the new States in a spirit of liberal, patronizing, magnanimous policy. So much, sir, for the cause why; and I hope that by this time, sir, the honorable gentleman is satisfied. If not, I do not know when, or how, or why he ever will be.

Having recurred to these two important measures, in answer to the gentleman's inquiries, I must now be permitted to go back to a period still something earlier, for the purpose still further of showing how much, or rather how little, reason there is for the gentleman's insinuation that political hopes, or fears, or party associations were the grounds of these New England votes. And, after what has been said, I hope it may be forgiven me if I allude to some political opinions and votes of my own, of very little public importance, certainly, but which, from the time at which they were given and expressed, may pass for good witnesses on this occasion.

This government, Mr. President, from its origin to the peace of 1815, had been too much engrossed with various other important concerns to be able to turn its thoughts inward, and look to the development of its vast internal resources. In

the early part of President Washington's administration it was fully occupied with organizing the government, providing for the public debt, defending the frontiers, and maintaining domestic peace. Before the termination of that administration the fires of the French Revolution blazed forth as from a new-opened volcano, and the whole breadth of the ocean did not entirely secure us from its effects. The smoke and the cinders reached us, though not the burning lava. Difficult and agitating questions, embarrassing to government and dividing public opinion, sprung out of the new state of our foreign relations, and were succeeded by others, and yet again by others, equally embarrassing, and equally exciting division and discord, through the long series of twenty years, till they finally issued in the war with England. Down to the close of that war no distinct, marked, and deliberate attention had been given, or could have been given, to the internal condition of the country, its capacities of improvement, or the constitutional power of the government in regard to objects connected with such improvement.

The peace, Mr. President, brought about an entirely new and most interesting state of things; it opened to us other prospects, and suggested other duties; we ourselves were changed, and the whole world was changed. The pacification of Europe, after June, 1815, assumed a firm and permanent aspect. The nations evidently manifested that they were disposed for peace; some agitation of the waves might be expected, even after the storm had subsided; but the tendency was, strongly and rapidly, towards settled repose.

It so happened, sir, that I was at that time a member of Congress, and, like others, naturally turned my attention to the contemplation of the newly altered condition of the country and of the world. It appeared plainly enough to me, as well as to wiser and more experienced men, that the policy of the government would necessarily take a start in a new direction, because new directions would necessarily be given to the pursuits and occupations of the people. We had pushed our commerce far and fast under the advantage of a neutral flag. But there were now no longer flags, either neutral or belligerent. The harvest of neutrality had been great, but we had gathered it all. With the peace of Europe it was obvious there would spring up, in her circle of nations, a revived and invigorated spirit of trade, and a new activity in all the business and objects of civilized life. Hereafter our commercial gains were to be earned only by success in a close and intense competition. Other nations would produce for themselves, and carry for themselves, and manufacture for themselves to the full extent of their abilities. The crops of our plains would no longer sustain European armies, nor our ships longer supply those whom war had rendered unable to supply themselves. It was obvious that under these circumstances the country would begin to survey itself and to estimate its own capacity of improvements. And this improvement, how was it to be accomplished and who was to accomplish it?

We were ten or twelve millions of people, spread over almost half a world. We were twenty-four States, some stretching along the same seaboard, some along the same line of inland frontier, and others on opposite banks of the same vast rivers. Two considerations at once presented themselves in looking at this state of things, with great force. One was that that great branch of improvement, which consisted in furnishing new facilities of intercourse, necessarily ran into different States, in every leading instance, and would benefit the citizens of all such States. No one State, therefore, in such cases, would assume the whole expense, nor was the co-operation of several States to be expected. Take the instance of the Delaware breakwater. It will cost several millions of money. Would Pennsylvania alone have ever constructed it? Certainly never while this Union lasts, because it is not for her sole benefit. Would Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and Delaware have united to accomplish it, at their joint expense? Certainly not, for the same reason. It could not be done, therefore, but by the general government. The same may be said of the large inland undertakings, except that in them government, instead of bearing the whole expense, co-operates with others who bear a part. The other consideration is that the United States have the means. They enjoy the revenues

derived from commerce, and the States have no abundant and easy sources of public income. The custom-houses fill the general treasury, while the States have scanty resources except by resort to heavy direct taxes.

Under this view of things I thought it necessary to settle, at least for myself, some definite notions with respect to the powers of government in regard to internal affairs. It may not savor too much of self-commendation to remark that with this object I considered the Constitution, its judicial construction, its contemporaneous exposition, and the whole history of the legislation of Congress under it; and I arrived at the conclusion that government has power to accomplish sundry objects, or aid in their accomplishments, which are now commonly spoken of as internal improvements. That conclusion, sir, may have been right, or it may have been wrong. I am not about to argue the grounds of it at large. I say only that it was adopted, and acted on, even so early as in 1816. Yes, Mr. President, I made up my opinion, and determined on my intended course of political conduct, on these subjects in the Fourteenth Congress, in 1816. And now, Mr. President, I have further to say that I made up these opinions and entered on this course of political conduct *Teucro duce*. Yes, sir, I pursued in all this a South Carolina track. On the doctrines of internal improvement, South Carolina, as she was then represented in the other House, set forth in 1816 under a fresh and leading breeze; and I was among the followers. But if my leader sees new lights, and turns a sharp corner, unless I see new lights also I keep straight on in the same path. I repeat that leading gentlemen from South Carolina were first and foremost in behalf of the doctrines of internal improvements when those doctrines first came to be considered and acted upon in Congress. The debate on the bank question, on the tariff of 1816, and on the direct tax will show who was who, and what was what, at that time. The tariff of 1816, one of the plain cases of oppression and usurpation, from which, if the government does not recede, individual States may justly secede from the government, is, sir, in truth, a South Carolina tariff, supported by South Carolina votes. But for these votes it could not have passed in the form in which it did pass; whereas, if it had depended on Massachusetts votes it would have been lost. Does not the honorable gentleman well know all this? There are certainly those who do full well know it all. I do not say this to reproach Carolina; I only state the fact, and I think it will appear to be true, that among the earliest and boldest advocates of the tariff, as a measure of protection, and on the express ground of protection, were leading gentlemen of South Carolina in Congress. I did not then, and cannot now, understand their language in any other sense. While this tariff of 1816 was under discussion in the House of Representatives an honorable gentleman from Georgia, now of this House—Mr. Forsyth—moved to reduce the proposed duty on cotton. He failed by four votes, South Carolina giving three votes—enough to have turned the scale—against his motion. The act, sir, then passed, and received on its passage the support of a majority of the representatives of South Carolina present and voting. This act is the first in the order of those now denounced as plain usurpations. We see it daily in the list by the side of those of 1824 and 1828, as a case of manifest oppression justifying disunion. I put it home to the honorable member from South Carolina that his own State was not only "art and part" in this measure, but the *causa causans*. Without her aid this seminal principle of mischief, this root of upas, could not have been planted. I have already said—and it is true—that this act proceeded on the ground of protection. It interfered directly with existing interests of great value and amount. It cut up the Calcutta cotton trade by the roots. But it passed, nevertheless, and it passed on the principle of protecting manufactures, on the principle against free-trade, on the principle opposed to that which lets us alone.

Such, Mr. President, were the opinions of important and leading gentlemen of South Carolina on the subject of internal improvement, in 1816. I went out of Congress the next year, and, returning again in 1823, thought I found South Carolina where I had left her. I really supposed that all things remained as they were,

and that the South Carolina doctrine of internal improvements would be defended by the same eloquent voices and the same strong arms as formerly. In the lapse of these six years, it is true, political associations had assumed a new aspect and new divisions. A party had arisen in the South hostile to the doctrine of internal improvements, and has vigorously attacked that doctrine. Anti-consolidation was the flag under which this party fought, and its supporters inveighed against internal improvements, much after the same manner in which the honorable gentleman has now inveighed against them, as part and parcel of the system of consolidation.

Whether this party arose in South Carolina herself, or in her neighborhood, is more than I know. I think the latter. However that may have been, there were those found in South Carolina ready to make war upon it, and who did make intrepid war upon it. Names being regarded as things, in such controversies, they bestowed on the anti-improvement gentlemen the appellation of radicals. Yes, sir, the name of radicals, as a term of distinction applicable and applied to those who denied the liberal doctrines of internal improvements, originated, according to the best of my recollection, somewhere between North Carolina and Georgia. Well, sir, those mischievous radicals were to be put down, and the strong arm of South Carolina was stretched out to put them down. About this time, sir, I returned to Congress. The battle with the radicals had been fought, and our South Carolina champions of the doctrines of internal improvement had nobly maintained their ground, and were understood to have achieved a victory. They have driven back the enemy with discomfiture; a thing, by-the-way, sir, which is not always performed when it is promised. A gentleman, to whom I have already referred in this debate, had come into Congress, during my absence from it, from South Carolina, and had brought with him a high reputation for ability. He came from a school with which we had been acquainted, *et noscitur a sociis.* I hold in my hand, sir, a printed speech of this distinguished gentleman — Mr. McDuffie — "on internal improvements," delivered about the period to which I now refer, and printed with a few introductory remarks upon consolidation; in which, sir, I think he quite consolidated the arguments of his opponents, the radicals, if to crush be to consolidate. I give you a short but substantive quotation from these remarks. He is speaking of a pamphlet, then recently published, entitled *Consolidation;* and having alluded to the question of rechartering the former bank of the United States, he says: "Moreover, in the early history of parties, and when Mr. Crawford advocated the renewal of the old charter, it was considered a Federal measure; which internal improvement never was, as this author erroneously states. This latter measure originated in the administration of Mr. Jefferson, with the appropriation for the Cumberland road; and was first proposed, as a system, by Mr. Calhoun, and carried through the House of Representatives by a large majority of the Republicans, including almost every one of the leading men who carried us through the late war."

So, then, internal improvement is not one of the Federal heresies.

One paragraph more, sir:

"The author in question, not content with denouncing as Federalists General Jackson, Mr. Adams, Mr. Calhoun, and the majority of the South Carolina delegation in Congress, modestly extends the denunciation to Mr. Monroe and the whole Republican party. Here are his words: 'During the administration of Mr. Monroe, much has passed which the Republican party would be glad to approve, if they could! But the principal feature, and that which has chiefly elicited these observations, is the renewal of the system of internal improvements.' Now this measure was adopted by a vote of 115 to 86, of a Republican Congress, and sanctioned by a Republican President. Who, then, is this author who assumes the high prerogative of denouncing, in the name of the Republican party, the Republican administration of the country— a denunciation including within its sweep Calhoun, Lowndes, and Cheves, men who will be regarded as the brightest ornaments of South Carolina, and the strongest pillars of the Republican party, as long as the late war shall be remembered,

and talents and patriotism shall be regarded as the proper objects of the admiration and gratitude of a free people!"

Such are the opinions, sir, which were maintained by South Carolina gentlemen in the House of Representatives on the subject of internal improvement when I took my seat there as a member from Massachusetts in 1823. But this is not all; we had a bill before us, and passed it in that House, entitled "An act to procure the necessary surveys, plans, and estimates upon the subject of roads and canals." It authorizes the President to cause surveys and estimates to be made of the routes of such roads and canals as he might deem of national importance in a commercial or military point of view, for the transportation of the mail, and appropriated $30,000 out of the treasury to defray the expense. This act, though preliminary in its nature, covered the whole ground. It took for granted the complete power of internal improvement, as far as any of its advocates had ever contended for it. Having passed the other House, the bill came up to the Senate, and was here considered and debated in April, 1824. The honorable member from South Carolina was a member of the Senate at that time. While the bill was under consideration here, a motion was made to add the following proviso:

"Provided, that nothing herein contained shall be construed to affirm or admit a power in Congress, on their own authority, to make roads or canals within any of the States of the Union."

The yeas and nays were taken on this proviso, and the honorable member voted in the negative. The proviso failed.

A motion was then made to add this provision—viz:

"Provided, that the faith of the United States is hereby pledged that no money shall ever be expended for roads or canals, except it shall be among the several States, and in the same proportion as direct taxes are laid and assessed by the provisions of the Constitution."

The honorable member voted against this proviso also, and it failed.

The bill was then put on its passage, and the honorable member voted for it, and it passed and became a law.

Now, it strikes me, sir, that there is no maintaining these votes but upon the power of internal improvement, in its broadest sense. In truth, these bills for surveys and estimates have always been considered as test questions. They show who is for and who is against internal improvement. This law itself went the whole length, and assumed the full and complete power. The gentleman's votes sustained that power in every form in which the various propositions to amend presented it. He went for the entire and unrestrained authority, without consulting the States, and without agreeing to any proportionate distribution. And now, suffer me to remind you, Mr. President, that it is this very same power, thus sanctioned, in every form, by the gentleman's own opinion, that is so plain and manifest a usurpation, that the State of South Carolina is supposed to be justified in refusing submission to any laws carrying the power into effect. Truly, sir, is not this a little too hard? May we not crave some mercy, under favor and protection of the gentleman's own authority? Admitting that a road or a canal must be written down flat usurpation as ever was committed, may we find no mitigation in our respect for his place, and his vote, as one that knows the law?

The tariff which South Carolina had an efficient hand in establishing in 1816, and this asserted power of internal improvement—advanced by her in the same year, and, as we have now seen, approved and sanctioned by her representatives in 1824—these two measures are the great grounds on which she is now thought to be justified in breaking up the Union, if she sees fit to break it up

I may now safely say, I think, that we have had the authority of leading and distinguished gentlemen from South Carolina in support of the doctrine of internal improvement. I repeat that, up to 1824, I, for one, followed South Carolina; but when that star in its ascension veered off in an unexpected direction, I relied on its light no longer. (Here the Vice-President said, Does the chair understand the gentleman from Massachusetts to say that the person now occupying the chair of the Senate has changed his opinions on the subject of internal improvement?) From nothing ever said to me, sir, have I had

reason to know of any change in the opinions of the person filling the chair of the Senate. If such change has taken place, I regret it; I speak generally of the State of South Carolina. Individuals we know there are who hold opinions favorable to the power. An application for its exercise in behalf of a public work in South Carolina itself is now pending, I believe, in the other House, presented by members from that State.

I have thus, sir, perhaps not without some tediousness of detail, shown that if I am in error on the subject of internal improvements, how and in what company I fell into that error. If I am wrong, it is apparent who misled me.

I go to other remarks of the honorable member—and I have to complain of an entire misapprehension of what I said on the subject of the national debt—though I can hardly perceive how any one could misunderstand me. What I said was, not that I wished to put off the payment of the debt, but, on the contrary, that I had always voted for every measure for its reduction, as uniformly as the gentleman himself. He seems to claim the exclusive merit of a disposition to reduce the public charge; I do not allow it to him. As a debt, I was, I am, for paying it; because it is a charge on our finances, and on the industry of the country. But I observed that I thought I perceived a morbid fervor on that subject; an excessive anxiety to pay off the debt; not so much because it is a debt simply, as because, while it lasts, it furnishes one objection to disunion. It is a tie of a common interest while it lasts. I did not impute such motive to the honorable member himself; but that there is such a feeling in existence I have not a particle of doubt. The most I said was, that if one effect of the debt was to strengthen our Union, that effect itself was not regretted by me, however much others might regret it. The gentleman has not seen how to reply to this otherwise than by supposing me to have advanced the doctrine that a national debt is a national blessing. Others, I must hope, will find less difficulty in understanding me. I distinctly and pointedly cautioned the honorable member not to understand me as expressing an opinion favorable to the continuance of the debt. I repeated this caution, and repeated it more than once—but it was thrown away.

On yet another point I was still more unaccountably misunderstood. The gentleman had harangued against "consolidation" I told him, in reply, that there was one kind of consolidation to which I was attached, and that was the consolidation of our Union; and that this was precisely that consolidation to which I feared others were not attached; that such consolidation was the very end of the Constitution—the leading object, as they had informed us themselves, which its framers had kept in view. I turned to their communication, and read their very words—"the consolidation of the Union"—and expressed my devotion to this resort of consolidation. I said in terms that I wished not, in the slightest degree, to augment the powers of this government, that my object was to preserve, not to enlarge; and that, by consolidating the Union, I understood no more than the strengthening of the Union and perpetuating it. Having been thus explicit; having thus read, from the printed book, the precise words which I adopted, as expressing my own sentiments, it passes comprehension how any man could understand me as contending for an extension of the powers of the government, or for consolidation in that odious sense in which it means an accumulation in the federal government of the power properly belonging to the States.

I repeat, sir, that in adopting the sentiments of the framers of the Constitution, I read their language audibly, and word for word; and I pointed out the distinction, just as fully as I have now done, between the consolidation of the Union and that other obnoxious consolidation which I disclaimed, and yet the honorable gentleman misunderstood me. The gentleman had said that he wished for no fixed revenue—not a shilling. If, by a word, he could convert the Capitol into gold, he would do it. Why all this fear of revenue? Why, sir, because, as the gentleman told us, it tends to consolidation. Now, this can mean neither more nor less than that a common revenue is a common interest, and that all common interests tend to hold the union of the States together. I confess I like that tendency;

if the gentleman dislikes it, he is right in deprecating a shilling's fixed revenue. So much, sir, for consolidation.

As well as I recollect the course of his remarks, the honorable gentleman next recurred to the subject of the tariff. He did not doubt the word must be of unpleasant sound to me, and proceeded with an effort neither new nor attended with new success, to involve me and my votes in inconsistency and contradiction. I am happy the honorable gentleman has furnished me an opportunity of a timely remark or two on that subject. I was glad he approached it, for it is a question I enter upon without fear from anybody. The strenuous toil of the gentleman has been to raise an inconsistency between my dissent to the tariff in 1824 and my vote in 1828. It is labor lost. He pays undeserved compliment to my speech in 1824; but this is to raise me high that my fall, as he would have it, in 1828 may be the more signal. Sir, there was no fall at all. Between the ground I stood on in 1824 and that I took in 1828 there was not only no precipice, but no declivity. It was a change of position to meet new circumstances, but on the same level. A plain tale explains the whole matter. In 1816 I had not acquiesced in the tariff then supported by South Carolina. To some parts of it, especially, I felt and expressed great repugnance. I held the same opinions in 1821, at the meeting in Faneuil Hall, to which the gentleman has alluded. I said then, and say now, that, as an original question, the authority of Congress to exercise the revenue power, with direct reference to the protection of manufactures, is a questionable authority, far more questionable, in my judgment, than the power of internal improvements. I must confess, sir, that, in one respect, some impression has been made on my opinions lately. Mr. Madison's publication has put the power in a very strong light. He has placed it, I must acknowledge, upon grounds of construction and argument which seem impregnable. But, even if the power were doubtful, on the face of the Constitution itself, it had been assumed and asserted in the first revenue law ever passed under the same Constitution; and, on this ground, as a matter settled by contemporaneous practice, I had refrained from expressing the opinion that the tariff laws transcended constitutional limits, as the gentleman supposes. What I did say at Faneuil Hall, as far as I now remember, was, that this was originally matter of doubtful construction. The gentleman himself, I suppose, thinks there is no doubt about it, and that the laws are plainly against the Constitution. Mr. Madison's letters, already referred to, contain, in my judgment, by far the most able exposition extant of this part of the Constitution. He has satisfied me, so far as the practice of the government had left it an open question.

With a great majority of the representatives of Massachusetts, I voted against the tariff of 1824. My reasons were then given, and I will not now repeat them. But notwithstanding our dissent, the great States of New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Kentucky went for the bill, in almost unbroken column, and it passed. Congress and the President sanctioned it, and it became the law of the land. What, then, were we to do? Our only option was either to fall in with this settled course of public policy, and to accommodate ourselves to it as well as we could, or to embrace the South Carolina doctrine, and talk of nullifying the statute by State interference.

This last alternative did not suit our principles, and, of course, we adopted the former. In 1827 the subject came again before Congress, on a proposition favorable to wool and woollens. We looked upon the system of protection as being fixed and settled. The law of 1824 remained. It had gone into full operation, and in regard to some objects intended by it, perhaps most of them, had produced all its expected effects. No man proposed to repeal it—no man attempted to renew the general contest on its principle. But owing to subsequent and unforeseen occurrences, the benefit intended by it to wool and woollen fabrics had not been realized. Events not known here when the law passed had taken place, which defeated its object in that particular respect. A measure was accordingly brought forward to meet this precise deficiency, to remedy this particular defect. It was limited to wool and woollens. Was ever anything more reasonable? If the

policy of the tariff laws had become established in principle as the permanent policy of the government, should they not be revised and amended, and made equal, like other laws, as exigencies should arise, or injustice require? Because we had doubted about adopting the system, were we to refuse to cure its manifest defects, after it became adopted, and when no one attempted its repeal? And this, sir, is the inconsistency so much bruited. I had voted against the tariff of 1824, but it passed, and in 1827 and 1828 I voted to amend it in a point essential to the interest of my constituents. Where is the inconsistency? Could I do otherwise?

Sir, does political consistency consist in always giving negative votes? Does it require of a public man to refuse to concur in amending laws because they passed against his consent? Having voted against the tariff originally, does consistency demand that I should do all in my power to maintain an unequal tariff, burdensome to my own constituents in many respects, favorable in none? To consistency of that sort I lay no claim; and there is another sort to which I lay as little, and that is a kind of consistency by which persons feel themselves as much bound to oppose a proposition after it has become the law of the land as before.

The bill of 1827, limited, as I have said, to the single object in which the tariff of 1824 had manifestly failed in its effect, passed the House of Representatives, but was lost here. We had then the act of 1828. I need not recur to the history of a measure so recent. Its enemies spiced it with whatsoever they thought would render it distasteful; its friends took it, drugged as it was. Vast amounts of property, many millions, had been invested in manufactures, under the inducements of the act of 1824. Events called loudly, as I thought, for further regulations to secure the degree of protection intended by that act. I was disposed to vote for such regulations, and desired nothing more; but certainly was not to be bantered out of my purpose by a threatened augmentation of duty on molasses, put into the bill for the avowed purpose of making it obnoxious. The vote may have been right or wrong, wise or unwise, but it is little less than absurd to allege against it an inconsistency with opposition to the former law.

Sir, as to the general subject of the tariff, I have little now to say. Another opportunity may be presented. I remarked, the other day, that this policy did not begin with us in New England; and yet, sir, New England is charged with vehemence as being favorable, or charged with equal vehemence as being unfavorable, to the tariff policy, just as best suits the time, place, and occasion for making some charge against her. The credulity of the public has been put to its extreme capacity of false impression relative to her conduct in this particular. Through all the South, during the late contest, it was New England policy, and a New England administration, that was afflicting the country with a tariff policy beyond all endurance, while, on the other side of the Alleghany, even the act of 1828 itself—the very sublimated essence of oppression, according to Southern opinions—was pronounced to be one of those blessings for which the West was indebted to the "generous South."

With large investments in manufacturing establishments, and various interests connected with and dependent on them, it is not to be expected that New England, any more than other portions of the country, will now consent to any measure destructive or highly dangerous. The duty of the government, at the present moment, would seem to be to preserve, not to destroy; to maintain the position which it has assumed; and, for one, I shall feel it an indispensable obligation to hold it steady, as far as in my power, to that degree of protection which it has undertaken to bestow. No more of the tariff.

Professing to be provoked by what he chose to consider a charge made by me against South Carolina, the honorable member, Mr. President, has taken up a new crusade against New England. Leaving altogether the subject of the public lands, in which his success, perhaps, had been neither distinguished nor satisfactory, and letting go, also, of the topic of the tariff, he sallied forth in a general assault on the opinions, politics, and parties of New England, as they have been exhibited in the last thirty years. This is natural. The "narrow policy" of the

public lands had proved a legal settlement in South Carolina, and was not to be removed. The "accursed policy" of the tariff, also, had established the fact of its birth and parentage in the same State. No wonder, therefore, the gentleman wished to carry the war, as he expressed it, into the enemy's country. Prudently willing to quit these subjects, he was doubtless desirous of fastening others, which could not be transferred south of Mason and Dixon's line. The politics of New England became his theme; it was in this part of his speech, I think, that he menaced me with such sore discomfiture.

Discomfiture! why, sir, when he attacks anything which I maintain, and overthrows it; when he turns the right or left of any position which I take up; when he drives me from any ground I choose to occupy, he may then talk of discomfiture, but not till that distant day. What had he done? Has he maintained his own charge? Has he proved what he alleged? Has he sustained himself in his attack on the government, and on the history of the North, in the matter of the public lands? Has he disproved a fact, refuted a proposition, weakened an argument maintained by me? Has he come within beat of drum of any position of mine? Oh no; but he has "carried the war into the enemy's country"! Carried the war into the enemy's country! Yes, sir, and what sort of a war has he made of it? Why, sir, he has stretched a drag-net over the whole surface of perished pamphlets, indiscreet sermons, frothy paragraphs, and fuming popular addresses; over whatever the pulpit in its moments of alarm, the press in its heats, and parties in their extravagance have severally thrown off, in times of general excitement and violence. He has thus swept together a mass of such things as, but that they are now old, the public health would have required him rather to leave in their state of dispersion

For a good long hour or two we had the unbroken pleasure of listening to the honorable member while he recited, with his usual grace and spirit, and with evident high gusto, speeches, pamphlets, addresses, and all the *et ceteras* of the political press, such as warm heads produce in warm times, and such as it would be "discomfiture," indeed, for any one, whose taste did not delight in that sort of reading, to be obliged to peruse. This is his war. This is to carry the war. This is to carry the war into the enemy's country. It is in an invasion of this sort that he flatters himself with the expectation of gaining laurels fit to adorn a Senator's brow.

Mr. President, I shall not—it will, I trust, not be expected that I should, either now or at any time—separate this farrago into parts, and answer and examine its components. I shall hardly bestow upon it all a general remark or two. In the run of forty years, sir, under this Constitution, we have experienced sundry successive violent party contests. Party arose, indeed, with the Constitution itself, and in some form or other has attended through the greater part of its history.

Whether any other constitution than the old Articles of Confederation was desirable was itself a question on which parties formed; if a new constitution was framed what powers should be given to it was another question; and when it had been formed what was, in fact, the just extent of the powers actually conferred was a third. Parties, as we know, existed under the first administration, as distinctly marked as those which manifested themselves at any subsequent period.

The contest immediately preceding the political change in 1801, and that, again, which existed at the commencement of the late war, are other instances of party excitement of something more than usual strength and intensity. In all these conflicts there was, no doubt, much of violence on both and all sides. It would be impossible, if one had a fancy for such employment, to adjust the relative quantum of violence between these two contending parties. There was enough in each, as must always be expected in popular governments. With a great deal of proper and decorous discussion there was mingled a great deal, also, of declamation, virulence, crimination, and abuse.

In regard to any party, probably, at one of the leading epochs in the history of parties, enough may be found to make out another equally inflamed exhibition as that with which the honorable member has edified us. For myself, sir, I shall not rake among the rubbish of bygone

times to see what I can find, or whether I cannot find something by which I can fix a blot on the escutcheon of any State, any party, or any part of the country. General Washington's administration was steadily and zealously maintained, as we all know, by New England. It was violently opposed elsewhere. We know in what quarter he had the most earnest, constant, and persevering support in all his great and leading measures. We know where his private and personal character was held in the highest degree of attachment and veneration, and we know, too, where his measures were opposed, his services slighted, and his character vilified.

We know, or we might know if we turn to the journals, who expressed respect, gratitude, and regret, when he retired from the chief magistracy; and who refused to express either respect, gratitude, or regret. I shall not open those journals. Publications more abusive or scurrilous never saw the light than were sent forth against Washington and all his leading measures from presses south of New England; but I shall not look them up. I employ no scavengers—no one is in attendance on me tendering such means of retaliation; and if there were, with an ass's load of them, with a bulk as huge as that which the gentleman himself has produced, I would not touch one of them. I see enough of the violence of our own times to be no way anxious to rescue from forgetfulness the extravagances of times past. Besides, what is all this to the present purpose? It has nothing to do with the public lands, in regard to which the attack was begun; and it has nothing to do with those sentiments and opinions which I have thought tend to disunion, and all of which the honorable member seems to have adopted himself, and undertaken to defend. New England has at times—so argues the gentleman—held opinions as dangerous as those which he now holds. Be it so. But why, therefore, does he abuse New England? If he finds himself countenanced by acts of hers, how is it that, while he relies on these acts, he covers, or seeks to cover, their authors with reproach?

But, sir, if in the course of forty years, there have been undue effervescences of party in New England, has the same thing happened nowhere else? Party animosity and party outrage, not in New England, but elsewhere, denounced President Washington, not only as a Federalist, but as a Tory, a British agent, a man who, in his high office, sanctioned corruption. But does the honorable member suppose that, if I had a tender here, who should put such an effusion of wickedness and folly in my hands, that I would stand up and read it against the South? Parties ran into great heats, again, in 1799 and 1800. What was said, sir, or rather what was not said, in those years against John Adams, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, and its admitted ablest defender on the floor of Congress? If the gentleman wants to increase his stores of party abuse and frothy violence, if he had a determined proclivity to such pursuits, there are treasures of that sort south of the Potomac, much to his taste, yet untouched. I shall not touch them.

The parties which divided the country, at the commencement of the late war, were violent. But, then, there was violence on both sides, and violence in every State. Minorities and majorities were equally violent. There was no more violence against the war in New England than in other States; nor any more appearance of violence, except that, owing to a dense population, greater facility for assembling, and more presses, there may have been more, in quantity, spoken and printed there than in some other places. In the article of sermons, too, New England is somewhat more abundant than South Carolina; and for that reason the chance of finding here and there an exceptionable one may be greater. I hope, too, there are more good ones. Opposition may have been more formidable in New England, as it embraced a larger portion of the whole population; but it was no more unrestrained in its principle, or violent in manner. The minorities dealt quite as harshly with their own State governments as the majorities dealt with the administration here. There were presses on both sides, popular meetings on both sides—ay, and pulpits on both sides also. The gentleman's purveyors have only catered for him among the productions of one side. I certainly shall not supply the de-

ficiency by furnishing samples of the other. I leave to him, and to them, the whole concern.

It is enough for me to say that if, in any part of this, their grateful occupation —if in all their researches—they find anything in the history of Massachusetts, or New England, or in the proceedings of any legislative or other public body, disloyal to the Union, speaking slightly of its value, proposing to break it up, or recommending non-intercourse with neighboring States, on account of difference of political opinion, then, sir, I give them all up to the honorable gentleman's unrestrained rebuke, expecting, however, that he will extend his buffetings, in like manner, to all similar proceedings, wherever else found.

The gentleman, sir, has spoken at large of former parties, now no longer in being, by their received appellations, and has undertaken to instruct us, not only in the knowledge of their principles, but of their respective pedigrees also. He has ascended to their origin, and run out their genealogies. With most exemplary modesty he speaks of the party to which he professes to have belonged himself, as the true, pure, the only honest, patriotic party, derived by regular descent from father to son, from the time of the virtuous Romans! Spreading before us the family tree of political parties, he takes especial care to show himself snugly perched on a popular bough! He is wakeful to the expediency of adopting such rules of descent, for political parties, as shall bring him in, in exclusion of others, as an heir to the inheritance of all public virtue, and all true political principles. His doxy is always orthodoxy. Heterodoxy is confined to his opponents. He spoke, sir, of the Federalists, and I thought I saw some eyes begin to open and stare a little when he ventured on that ground. I expected he would draw his sketches rather lightly when he looked on the circle round him, and especially if he should cast his thoughts to the high places out of the Senate. Nevertheless, he went back to Rome, *ad annum urbe condita*, and found the fathers of the Federalists in the primeval aristocrats of that renowned empire! He traced the flow of Federal blood down through successive ages and centuries, till he got into the veins of the American Tories (of whom, by-the-way, there were twenty in the Carolinas for one in Massachusetts). From the Tories he followed it to the Federalists; and as the Federalist party was broken up, and there was no possibility of transmitting it further on this side of the Atlantic, he seems to have discovered that it has gone off, collaterally, though against all the canons of descent, into the ultras of France, and finally become extinguished, like exploded gas among the adherents of Don Miguel.

This, sir, is an abstraction of the gentleman's history of Federalism. I am not about to controvert it. It is not, at present, worth the pains of refutation, because, sir, if at this day one feels the sin of Federalism lying heavily on his conscience, he can easily obtain remission. He may even have an indulgence, if he is desirous of repeating the transgression. It is an affair of no difficulty to get into this same right line of patriotic descent. A man, nowadays, is at liberty to choose his political parentage. He may elect his own father. Federalist or not, he may, if he choose, claim to belong to the favored stock, and his claim will be allowed. He may carry back his pretensions just as far as the honorable gentleman himself; nay, he may make himself out the honorable gentleman's cousin, and prove satisfactorily that he is descended from the same political great-grandfather. All this is allowable. We all know a process, sir, by which the whole Essex Junto could, in one hour, be all washed white from their ancient Federalism, and come out, every one of them, an original Democrat, dyed in the wool! Some of them have actually undergone the operation, and they say it is quite easy. The only inconvenience it occasions, as they tell us, is a slight tendency of the blood to the face, a soft suffusion, which, however, is very transient, since nothing is said calculated to deepen the red on the cheek, but a prudent silence observed in regard to all the past. Indeed, sir, some smiles of approbation have been bestowed, and some crumbs of comfort have fallen, not a thousand miles from the door of the Hartford Convention itself. And if the author of the ordinance of 1787 possessed the

other requisite qualifications, there is no knowing, notwithstanding his Federalism, to what heights of favor he might not yet attain.

Mr. President, in carrying his warfare, such as it was, into New England, the honorable gentleman all along professes to be acting on the defensive. He desires to consider me as having assailed South Carolina, and insists that he come forth only as her champion and in her defence. Sir, I do not admit that I made any attack whatever on South Carolina. Nothing like it. The honorable member, in his first speech, expressed opinions in regard to revenue, and some other topics, which I heard both with pain and surprise. I told the gentleman that I was aware that such sentiments were entertained out of the government, but had not expected to find them advanced in it; that I knew there were persons in the South who speak of our Union with indifference, or doubt, taking pains to magnify its evils, and to say nothing of its benefits; that the honorable member himself, I was sure, could never be one of these; and I regretted the expression of such opinions as he had avowed, because I thought their obvious tendency was to encourage feelings of disrespect to the Union and to weaken its connection. This, sir, is the sum and substance of all I said on the subject. And this constitutes the attack which called on the chivalry of the gentleman, in his opinion, to harry us with such a forage among the party pamphlets and party proceedings of Massachusetts. If he means that I spoke with dissatisfaction or disrespect of the ebullitions of individuals in South Carolina, it is true. But if he means that I had assailed the character of the State, her honor or patriotism, that I had reflected on her history or her conduct, he had not the slightest ground for any such assumption. I did not even refer, I think, in my observations, to any collection of individuals. I said nothing of the recent conventions. I spoke in the most guarded and careful manner, and only expressed my regret for the publication of opinions which I presumed the honorable member disapproved as much as myself. In this, it seems, I was mistaken.

I do not remember that the gentleman has disclaimed any sentiment or any opinion of a supposed anti-Union tendency, which on all or any of the recent occasions has been expressed. The whole drift of his speech has been rather to prove that, in divers times and manners, sentiments equally liable to objection have been promulgated in New England. And one would suppose that his object, in this reference to Massachusetts, was to find a precedent to justify proceedings in the South, were it not for the reproach and contumely with which he labors, all along, to load his precedents.

By way of defending South Carolina from what he chooses to think as attack on her, he first quotes the example of Massachusetts, and then denounces that example in good set terms. This twofold purpose, not very consistent with itself, one would think, was exhibited more than once in the course of his speech. He referred, for instance, to the Hartford Convention. Did he do this for authority or for a topic of reproach? Apparently for both; for he told us that he should find no fault with the mere fact of holding such a convention and considering and discussing such questions as he supposes were then and there discussed; but what rendered it obnoxious was the time it was holden and the circumstances of the country then existing. We were in a war, he said, and the country needed all our aid; and the hand of government required to be strengthened, not weakened; and patriotism should have postponed such proceedings to another day. The thing itself, then, is a precedent; the time and manner of it only, subject of censure.

Now, sir, I go much farther on this point than the honorable member. Supposing, as the gentleman seems to, that the Hartford Convention assembled for any such purpose as breaking up the Union, because they thought unconstitutional laws had been passed, or to concert on that subject, or to calculate the value of the Union; supposing this to be their purpose, or any part of it, then I say the meeting itself was disloyal and obnoxious to censure, whether held in time of peace or time of war, or under whatever circumstances. The material matter is the object. Is dissolution the object? If it be, external circumstances may make

it a more or less aggravated case, but cannot affect the principle. I do not hold, therefore, that the Hartford Convention was pardonable, even to the extent of the gentleman's admission, if its objects were really such as have been imputed to it. Sir, there never was a time, under any degree of excitement, in which the Hartford Convention, or any other convention, could maintain itself one moment in New England if assembled for any such purpose as the gentleman says would have been an allowable purpose. To hold conventions to decide questions of constitutional law!—to try the binding validity of statutes by votes in a convention! Sir, the Hartford Convention, I presume, would not desire that the honorable gentleman should be their defender or advocate if he puts their case upon such untenable and extravagant grounds.

Then, sir, the gentleman has no fault to find with these recently promulgated South Carolina opinions. And, certainly, he need have none; for his own sentiments, as now advanced, and advanced on reflection, as far as I have been able to comprehend them, go the full length of all these opinions. I propose, sir, to say something on these, and to consider how far they are just and constitutional. Before doing that, however, let me observe that the eulogium pronounced on the character of the State of South Carolina by the honorable gentleman, for her revolutionary and other merits, meets my hearty concurrence. I shall not acknowledge that the honorable member goes before me in regard for whatever of distinguished talent or distinguished character South Carolina has produced. I claim part of the honor, I partake in the pride, of her great name. I claim them for countrymen, one and all. The Laurenses, the Rutledges, the Pinckneys, the Sumpters, the Marions—Americans all, whose fame is no more to be hemmed in by State lines than their talents and patriotism were capable of being circumscribed within the same narrow limits. In their day and generation they served and honored the country, and the whole country; and their renown is of the treasures of the whole country. Him whose honored name the gentleman himself bears—does he suppose me less capable of gratitude for his patriotism, or sympathy for his sufferings, than if his eyes had first opened upon the light in Massachusetts instead of South Carolina? Sir, does he suppose it is in his power to exhibit a Carolina name so bright as to produce envy in my bosom? No, sir, increased gratification and delight rather.

Sir, I thank God that if I am gifted with little of the spirit which is said to be able to raise mortals to the skies, I have yet none, as I trust, of that other spirit which would drag angels down. When I shall be found, sir, in my place here in the Senate, or elsewhere, to sneer at public merit because it happened to spring up beyond the little limits of my own State or neighborhood; when I refuse, for any such cause, or for any cause, the homage due to American talent, to elevated patriotism, to sincere devotion to liberty and the country; or if I see an uncommon endowment of Heaven, if I see extraordinary capacity and virtue in any son of the South; and if, moved by local prejudice or gangrened by State jealousy, I get up here to abate the tithe of a hair from his just character and just fame, may my tongue cleave to the roof of my mouth! Sir, let me recur to pleasing recollections; let me indulge in refreshing remembrance of the past; let me remind you that in early times no States cherished greater harmony, both of principle and feeling, than Massachusetts and South Carolina. Would to God that harmony might again return. Shoulder to shoulder they went through the Revolution; hand in hand they stood round the administration of Washington, and felt his own great arm lean on them for support. Unkind feeling—if it exist—alienation, and distrust are the growth unnatural to such soils, of false principles since sown. They are weeds, the seeds of which that same great arm never scattered.

Mr. President, I shall enter on no encomium upon Massachusetts; she needs none. There she is—behold her, and judge for yourselves. There is her history—the world knows it by heart. The past, at least, is secure. There is Boston, and Concord, and Lexington, and Bunker Hill; and there they will remain forever. The bones of her sons, fallen in the great struggle for independence, now lie min-

glad with the soil of every State from New England to Georgia; and there they will lie forever. And, sir, where American liberty raised its first voice, and where its youth was nurtured and sustained, there it still lives, in the strength of its manhood and full of its original spirit. If discord and disunion shall wound it; if party strife and blind ambition shall hawk at and tear it; if folly and madness, if uneasiness under salutary and necessary restraint shall succeed to separate it from that Union by which alone its existence is made sure, it will stand, in the end, by the side of that cradle in which its infancy was rocked; it will stretch forth its arms with whatever vigor it may still retain over the friends who gather round it, and it will fall at last, if fall it must, amidst the proudest monuments of its own glory and on the very spot of its origin.

There yet remains to be performed, Mr. President, by far the most grave and important duty which I feel to be devolved on me by this occasion. It is to state and to defend what I conceive to be the true principles of the Constitution under which we are here assembled. I might well have desired that so weighty a task should have fallen into other and abler hands. I could have wished that it should have been executed by those whose character and experience give weight and influence to their opinions, such as cannot possibly belong to mine. But, sir, I have met the occasion, not sought it; and I shall proceed to state my own sentiments without challenging for them any particular regard, with studied plainness and as much precision as possible.

I understand the honorable gentleman from South Carolina to maintain that it is a right of the State legislatures to interfere, whenever, in their judgment, this government transcends its constitutional limits, and to arrest the operations of its laws.

I understand him to maintain this right as a right existing under the Constitution, not as a right to overthrow it, on the ground of extreme necessity, such as would justify violent revolution.

I understand him to maintain an authority, on the part of the States, thus to interfere, for the purpose of correcting the exercise of power by the general government, of checking it, and of compelling it to conform to their opinion of the extent of its power.

I understand him to maintain that the ultimate power of judging of the constitutional extent of its own authority is not lodged exclusively in the general government, or any branch of it, but that, on the contrary, the States may lawfully decide for themselves, and each State for itself, whether, in a given case, the act of the general government transcends its power.

I understand him to insist that, if the exigency of the case, in the opinion of any State government, require it, such State government may, by its own sovereign authority, annul an act of the general government which it deems plainly and palpably unconstitutional.

This is the sum of what I understood from him to be the South Carolina doctrine. I propose to consider it, and to compare it with the Constitution. Allow me to say, as a preliminary remark, that I call this the South Carolina doctrine, only because the gentleman himself has so denominated it. I do not feel at liberty to say that South Carolina, as a State, has ever advanced these sentiments. I hope she has not, and never may. That a great majority of her people are opposed to the tariff laws is doubtless true. That a majority, somewhat less than that just mentioned, conscientiously believe these laws unconstitutional, may probably also be true. But that any majority holds to the right of direct State interference, at State discretion, the right of nullifying acts of Congress by acts of State legislation, is more than I know, and what I shall be slow to believe.

That there are individuals besides the honorable gentleman who do maintain these opinions is quite certain. I recollect the recent expression of a sentiment which circumstances attending its utterance and publication justify us in supposing was not unpremeditated: "The sovereignty of the State; never to be controlled, construed, or decided on but by her own feelings of honorable justice."

[Mr. Hayne here rose and said that, for the purpose of being clearly understood, he would state that his proposi-

tion was in the words of the Virginian resolution, as follows:

"That this Assembly doth explicitly and peremptorily declare that it views the powers of the federal government, as resulting from the compact to which the States are parties, as limited by the plain sense and intention of the instrument constituting that compact, as no further valid than they are authorized by the grants enumerated in that compact; and that, in case of a deliberate, palpable, and dangerous exercise of other powers not granted by the said compact, the States who are parties thereto have the right, and are in duty bound, to interpose for arresting the progress of the evil, and for maintaining within their respective limits the authorities, rights, and liberties pertaining to them."]

Mr. Webster resumed:

I am quite aware, Mr. President, of the existence of the resolution which the gentleman read, and has now repeated, and that he relies on it as his authority. I know the source, too, from which it is understood to have proceeded. I need not say that I have much respect for the constitutional opinions of Mr. Madison; they would weigh greatly with me always. But, before the authority of his opinion be vouched for the gentleman's proposition, it will be proper to consider what is the fair interpretation of that resolution to which Mr. Madison is understood to have given his sanction. As the gentleman construes it, it is an authority for him. Possibly he may not have adopted the right construction. That resolution declares that in the case of the dangerous exercise of powers not granted by the general government, the States may interpose to arrest the progress of the evil. But how interpose? And what does this declaration purport? Does it mean no more than that there may be extreme cases in which the people, in any mode of assembling, may resist usurpation and relieve themselves from a tyrannical government? No one will deny this. Such resistance is not only acknowledged to be just in America, but in England also. Blackstone admits as much, in the theory and practice, too, of the English constitution. We, sir, who oppose the Carolina doctrine, do not deny that the people may, if they choose, throw off any government when it becomes oppressive and intolerable, and erect a better in its stead. We all know that civil institutions are established for the public benefit, and that, when they cease to answer the ends of their existence, they may be changed.

But I do not understand the doctrine now contended for to be that which, for the sake of distinctness, we may call the right of revolution. I understand the gentleman to maintain that without revolution, without civil commotion, without rebellion, a remedy for supposed abuse and transgression of the powers of the general government lies in a direct appeal to the interference of the State governments.

[Mr. Hayne here arose. He did not contend, he said, for the mere right of revolution, but for the right of constitutional resistance. What he maintained was, that, in case of a plain, palpable violation of the Constitution by the general government, a State may interpose; and that this interposition is constitutional.]

Mr. Webster resumed:

So, sir, I understood the gentleman, and am happy to find that I did not misunderstand him. What he contends for is, that it is constitutional to interrupt the administration of the Constitution itself in the hands of those who are chosen and sworn to administer it, by the direct interference, in form of law, of the States in virtue of their sovereign capacity. The inherent right in the people to reform their government I do not deny; and they have another right, and that is, to resist unconstitutional laws without overturning the government. It is no doctrine of mine that unconstitutional laws bind the people. The great question is, Whose prerogative is it to decide on the constitutionality or unconstitutionality of the laws? On that the main debate hinges. The proposition that, in case of a supposed violation of the Constitution by Congress, the States have a constitutional right to interfere and annul the law of Congress, is the proposition of the gentleman; I do not admit it. If the gentleman had intended no more than to assert the right of revolution for justifiable cause, he would have said only what all agree to. But I cannot conceive that there can be a middle course

between submission to the laws, when regularly pronounced constitutional on the one hand, and open resistance, which is revolution or rebellion, on the other. I say the right of a State to annul a law of Congress cannot be maintained but on the ground of the inalienable right of man to resist oppression—that is to say, upon the ground of revolution. I admit that there is an ultimate violent remedy, above the Constitution and in defiance of the Constitution, which may be resorted to when a revolution is to be justified. But I do not admit that, under the Constitution and in conformity with it, there is any mode in which a State government as a member of the Union can interfere and stop the progress of the general government, by force of her own laws, under any circumstances whatever.

This leads us to inquire into the origin of this government and the source of its power. Whose agent is it? Is it the creature of the State legislatures, or the creature of the people? If the government of the United States be the agent of the State governments, then they may control it, provided they can agree in the manner of controlling it; if it is the agent of the people, then the people alone can control it, restrain it, modify or reform it. It is observable enough that the doctrine for which the honorable gentleman contends leads him to the necessity of maintaining, not only that this general government is the creature of the States, but that it is the creature of each of the States severally; so that each may assert the power, for itself, of determining whether it acts within the limits of its authority. It is the servant of four-and-twenty masters, of different wills and different purposes, and yet bound to obey all. This absurdity (for it seems no less) arises from a misconception as to the origin of this government and its true character. It is, sir, the people's Constitution, the people's government; made for the people, made by the people, and answerable to the people. The people of the United States have declared that this Constitution shall be the supreme law. We must either admit the proposition or dispute their authority. The States are unquestionably sovereign, so far as their sovereignty is not affected by this supreme law. The State legislatures, as political bodies, however sovereign, are yet not sovereign over the people. So far as the people have given power to the general government so far the grant is unquestionably good, and the government holds of the people and not of the State governments. We are agents of the same supreme power, the people. The general government and the State governments derive their authority from the same source. Neither can, in relation to the other, be called primary, though one is definite and restricted and the other general and residuary.

The national government possesses those powers which it can be shown the people have conferred on it, and no more. All the rest belongs to the State governments, or to the people themselves. So far as the people have restrained State sovereignty by the expression of their will in the Constitution of the United States, so far it must be admitted State sovereignty is effectually controlled. I do not contend that it is, or ought to be, controlled further. The sentiment to which I have referred propounds that State sovereignty is only to be controlled by its own "feeling of justice"; that is to say, it is not to be controlled at all, for one who is to follow his feelings is under no legal control. Now, however men may think this ought to be, the fact is that the people of the United States have chosen to impose control on State sovereignties. The Constitution has ordered the matter differently from what this opinion announces. To make war, for instance, is an exercise of sovereignty; but the Constitution declares that no State shall make war. To coin money is another exercise of sovereign power; but no State is at liberty to coin money. Again, the Constitution says that no sovereign State shall be so sovereign as to make a treaty. These prohibitions, it must be confessed, are a control on the State sovereignty of South Carolina, as well as of the other States, which does not arise "from her own feelings of honorable justice." Such an opinion, therefore, is in defiance of the plainest provisions of the Constitution.

There are other proceedings of public bodies which have already been alluded to, and to which I refer again for the purpose of ascertaining more fully what is the

length and breadth of that doctrine, denominated the Carolina doctrine, which the honorable member has now stood up on this floor to maintain.

In one of them I find it resolved that "the tariff of 1828, and every other tariff designed to promote one branch of industry at the expense of others, is contrary to the meaning and intention of the federal compact, and as such a dangerous, palpable, and deliberate usurpation of power by a determined majority, wielding the general government beyond the limits of its delegated powers, as calls upon the States which compose the suffering minority, in their sovereign capacity, to exercise the powers which, as sovereigns, necessarily devolve upon them when their compact is violated."

Observe, sir, that this resolution holds the tariff of 1828, and every other tariff, designed to promote one branch of industry at the expense of another, to be such a dangerous, palpable, and deliberate usurpation of power as calls upon the States, in their sovereign capacity, to interfere by their own power. This denunciation, Mr. President, you will please to observe, includes our old tariff of 1816 as well as all others, because that was established to promote the interest of the manufactures of cotton, to the manifest and admitted injury of the Calcutta cotton trade. Observe, again, that all the qualifications are here rehearsed, and charged upon the tariff, which are necessary to bring the case within the gentleman's proposition. The tariff is a usurpation; it is a dangerous usurpation; it is a palpable usurpation; it is a deliberate usurpation. It is such a usurpation as calls upon the States to exercise their right of interference. Here is a case, then, within the gentleman's principles, and all his qualifications of his principles. It is a case for action. The Constitution is plainly, dangerously, palpably, and deliberately violated, and the States must interpose their own authority to arrest the law. Let us suppose the State of South Carolina to express the same opinion, by the voice of her legislature. That would be very imposing, but what then? Is the voice of one State conclusive? It so happens that at the very moment when South Carolina resolves that the tariff laws are unconstitutional, Pennsylvania and Kentucky resolve exactly the reverse. They hold those laws to be both highly proper and strictly constitutional. And now, sir, how does the honorable member propose to deal with this case? How does he get out of this difficulty upon any principle of his? His construction gets us into it; how does he propose to get us out?

In Carolina the tariff is a palpable, deliberate usurpation. Carolina, therefore, may nullify it, and refuse to pay the duties. In Pennsylvania it is both clearly constitutional and highly expedient, and there the duties are to be paid. And yet we live under a government of uniform laws, and under a Constitution, too, which contains an express provision, as it happens, that all duties shall be equal in all the States. Does not this approach absurdity?

If there be no power to settle such questions, independent of either of the States, is not the whole Union a rope of sand? Are we not thrown back again precisely upon the old confederation?

It is too plain to be argued. Four-and-twenty interpreters of constitutional law, each with a power to decide for itself, and none with authority to bind anybody else, and this constitutional law the only bond of their union! What is such a state of things but a mere connection during pleasure, or, to use the phraseology of the times, during feeling? And that feeling, too, not the feeling of the people who established the Constitution, but the feeling of the State governments.

In another of the South Carolina addresses, having premised that the crisis requires "all the concentrated energy of passion," an attitude of open resistance to the laws of the Union is advised. Open resistance to the laws, then, is the constitutional remedy, the conservative power of the State, which the South Carolina doctrines teach for the redress of political evils, real or imaginary. And its authors further say that, appealing with confidence to the Constitution itself to justify their opinions, they cannot consent to try their accuracy by the courts of justice. In one sense, indeed, sir, this is assuming an attitude of open resistance in favor of liberty. But what sort of liberty? The

liberty of establishing their own opinions, in defiance of the opinions of all others; the liberty of judging and of deciding exclusively, themselves, in a matter in which others have as much right to judge and decide as they; the liberty of placing their opinions above the judgment of all others, above the laws, and above the Constitution. This is their liberty, and this is the fair result of the proposition contended for by the honorable gentleman. Or it may be more properly said it is identical with it, rather than a result from it. In the same publication we find the following: "Previously to our Revolution, when the arm of oppression was stretched over New England, where did our Northern brethren meet with a braver sympathy than that which sprung from the bosom of Carolinians? We had no extortion, no oppression, no collision with the King's ministers, no navigation interests springing up in envious rivalry of England."

This seems extraordinary language. South Carolina no collision with the King's ministers in 1775! no extortion! no oppression! But, sir, it is also most significant language. Does any man doubt the purpose for which it was penned? Can any one fail to see that it was designed to raise in the reader's mind the question whether, at this time—that is to say, in 1828—South Carolina has any collision with the King's ministers, any oppression, or extortion, to fear from England? Whether, in short, England is not as naturally the friend of South Carolina as New England, with her navigation interests springing up in envious rivalry of England?

Is it not strange, sir, that an intelligent man in South Carolina, in 1828, should thus labor to prove that, in 1775, there was no hostility, no cause of war, between South Carolina and England? That she had no occasion, in reference to her own interest or from a regard to her own welfare, to take up arms in the Revolutionary contest? Can any one account for the expression of such strange sentiments, and their circulation through the State, otherwise than by supposing the object to be, what I have already intimated, to raise the question, If they had no "collision" (mark the expression) with the ministers of King George III. in 1775, what collision have they in 1828 with the ministers of King George IV.? What is there now in the existing state of things to separate Carolina from Old, more or rather less than from New, England?

Resolutions, sir, have been recently passed by the legislature of South Carolina. I need not refer to them; they go no further than the honorable gentleman himself has gone—and I hope not so far. I content myself, therefore, with debating the matter with him.

And now, sir, what I have first to say on this subject is that at no time, and under no circumstances, has New England, or any State in New England, or any respectable body of persons in New England, or any public man of standing in New England, put forth such a doctrine as this Carolina doctrine.

The gentleman has found no case—he can find none—to support his own opinions by New England authority. New England has studied the Constitution in other schools, and under other teachers. She looks upon it with other regards, and deems more highly and reverently both of its just authority and its utility and excellence. The history of her legislative proceedings may be traced—the ephemeral effusions of temporary bodies, called together by the excitement of the occasion, may be hunted up—they have been hunted up. The opinions and votes of her public men, in and out of Congress, may be explored—it will all be in vain. The Carolina doctrine can derive from her neither countenance nor support. She rejects it now; she always did reject it; and till she loses her senses she always will reject it. The honorable member has referred to expressions on the subject of the embargo law made in this place by an honorable and venerable gentleman (Mr. Hillhouse) now favoring us with his presence. He quotes that distinguished Senator as saying that in his judgment the embargo law was unconstitutional, and that, therefore, in his opinion, the people were not bound to obey it.

That, sir, is perfectly constitutional language. An unconstitutional law is not binding; but then it does not rest with a resolution or a law of a State legislature to decide whether an act of Congress be or

be not constitutional. An unconstitutional act of Congress would not bind the people of this district, although they have no legislature to interfere in their behalf; and, on the other hand, a constitutional law of Congress does bind the citizens of every State, although all their legislatures should undertake to annul it, by act or resolution. The venerable Connecticut Senator is a constitutional lawyer of sound principles and enlarged knowledge; a statesman practised and experienced, bred in the company of Washington, and holding just views upon the nature of our governments. He believed the embargo unconstitutional, and so did others; but what then? Who did he suppose was to decide that question? The State legislature? Certainly not. No such sentiment ever escaped his lips. Let us follow up, sir, this New England opposition to the embargo laws; let us trace it till we discern the principle which controlled and governed New England throughout the whole course of that opposition. We shall then see what similarity there is between the New England school of constitutional opinions and this modern Carolina school. The gentleman, I think, read a petition from some single individual, addressed to the legislature of Massachusetts, asserting the Carolina doctrine—that is, the right of State interference to assert the laws of the Union. The fate of that petition shows the sentiment of the legislature. It met no favor. The opinions of Massachusetts were otherwise. They had been expressed in 1798, in answer to the resolutions of Virginia, and she did not depart from them, nor bend them to the times. Misgoverned, wronged, oppressed, as she felt herself to be, she still held fast her integrity to the Union. The gentleman may find in her proceedings much evidence of dissatisfaction with the measures of government, and great and deep dislike to the embargo; all this makes the case so much the stronger for her; for, notwithstanding all this dissatisfaction and dislike, she claimed no right still to sever asunder the bonds of the Union. There was heat and there was anger in her political feeling. Be it so. Her heat or her anger did not, nevertheless, betray her into infidelity to the government. The gentleman labors to prove that she disliked the embargo as much as South Carolina dislikes the tariff, and expressed her dislike as strongly. Be it so. But did she propose the Carolina remedy? Did she threaten to interfere, by State authority, to annul the laws of the Union? That is the question for the gentleman's consideration.

No doubt, sir, a great majority of the people of New England conscientiously believed the embargo law of 1807 unconstitutional—as conscientiously certainly as the people of South Carolina hold that opinion of the tariff. They reasoned thus: Congress has power to regulate commerce; but here is a law, they said, stopping all commerce, and stopping it indefinitely. The law is perpetual—that is, it is not limited in point of time, and must of course continue till it shall be repealed by some other law. It is as perpetual, therefore, as the law against treason or murder. Now, is this regulating commerce, or destroying it? Is it guiding, controlling, giving the rule to commerce as a subsisting thing, or is it putting an end to it altogether? Nothing is more certain than that a majority in New England deemed this law a violation of the Constitution. The very case required by the gentleman to justify State interference had then arisen. Massachusetts believed this law to be "a deliberate, palpable, and dangerous exercise of a power not granted by the Constitution." Deliberate it was, for it was long continued; palpable she thought it, as no words in the Constitution gave the power, and only a construction, in her opinion most violent, raised it; dangerous it was, since it threatened utter ruin to her most important interests. Here, then, was a Carolina case. How did Massachusetts deal with it? It was, as she thought, a plain, manifest, palpable violation of the Constitution; and it brought ruin to her doors. Thousands of families and hundreds of thousands of individuals were beggared by it. While she saw and felt all this, she saw and felt also that as a measure of national policy it was perfectly futile; that the country was no way benefited by that which caused so much individual distress; that it was efficient only for the production of evil, and all that evil inflicted on ourselves. In such a case,

under such circumstances, how did Massachusetts demean herself? Sir, she remonstrated, she memorialized, she addressed herself to the general government, not exactly "with the concentrated energy of passion," but with her strong sense and the energy of sober conviction. But she did not interpose the arm of her power to arrest the law and break the embargo. Far from it. Her principles bound her to two things, and she followed her principles, lead where they might. First, to submit to every constitutional law of Congress; and secondly, if the constitutional validity of the law be doubted, to refer that question to the decision of the proper tribunals. The first principle is vain and ineffectual without the second. A majority of us in New England believed the embargo law unconstitutional, but the great question was, and always will be, in such cases, Who is to decide this? Who is to judge between the people and the government? And, sir, it is quite plain that the Constitution of the United States confers on the government itself, to be exercised by its appropriate department, this power of deciding, ultimately and conclusively, upon the just extent of its own authority. If this had not been done, we should not have advanced a single step beyond the old confederation.

Being fully of opinion that the embargo law was unconstitutional, the people of New England were yet equally clear in the opinion—it was a matter they did not doubt upon—that the question, after all, must be decided by the judicial tribunals of the United States. Before those tribunals, therefore, they brought the question. Under the provisions of the law they had given bonds, to millions in amount, and which were alleged to be forfeited. They suffered the bonds to be sued and thus raised the question. In the old-fashioned way of settling disputes they went to law. The case came to hearing and solemn argument; and he who espoused their cause and stood up for them against the validity of the act was none other than that great man, of whom the gentleman has made honorable mention, Samuel Dexter. He was then, sir, in the fulness of his knowledge and the maturity of his strength. He had retired from long and distinguished public service here, to the renewed pursuit of professional duties; carrying with him all that enlargement and expansion, all the new strength and force, which an acquaintance with the more general subjects discussed in the national councils is capable of adding to professional attainment, in a mind of true greatness and comprehension. He was a lawyer, and he was also a statesman. He had studied the Constitution when he filled public station, that he might defend it; he had examined its principles, that he might maintain them. More than all men, or at least as much as any man, he was attached to the general government, and to the union of the States. His feelings and opinions all ran in that direction. A question of constitutional law, too, was, of all subjects, that one which was best suited to his talents and learning. Aloof from technicality, and unfettered by artificial rule, such a question gave opportunity for that deep and clear analysis, that mighty grasp of principle, which so much distinguished his higher efforts. His very statement was argument; his inference seemed demonstration. The earnestness of his own conviction wrought conviction in others. One was convinced, and believed, and assented, because it was gratifying, delightful, to think, and feel, and believe, in unison with an intellect of such evident superiority.

Mr. Dexter, sir, such as I have described him, argued in the New England cause. He put into his effort his whole heart, as well as all the powers of his understanding; for he had avowed, in the most public manner, his entire concurrence with his neighbors, on the point in dispute. He argued the cause; it was lost, and New England submitted. The established tribunals pronounced the law constitutional, and New England acquiesced. Now, sir, is not this the exact opposite of the doctrine of the gentleman from South Carolina? According to him, instead of referring to the judicial tribunal, we should have broken up the embargo by laws of our own; we should have repealed it, *quoad* New England; for we had a strong, palpable, and oppressive case. Sir, we believed the embargo unconstitutional; but still, that was matter of opinion, and

who was to decide it? We thought it a clear case; but, nevertheless, we did not take the law into our hands, because we did not wish to bring about a revolution, nor to break up the Union; for I maintain, that between submission to the decision of the constitutional tribunals and revolution, or disunion, there is no middle ground—there is no ambiguous condition, half allegiance and half rebellion. There is no treason, *madcosy*. And, sir, how futile, how very futile it is, to admit the right of State interference, and then to attempt to save it from the character of unlawful resistance, by adding terms of qualification to the causes and occasions, leaving all the qualifications, like the case itself, in the discretion of the State governments. It must be a clear case, it is said; a deliberate case; a palpable case; a dangerous case. But, then, the State is still left at liberty to decide for herself what is clear, what is deliberate, what is palpable, what is dangerous.

Do adjectives and epithets avail anything? Sir, the human mind is so constituted that the merits of both sides of a controversy appear very clear, and very palpable, to those who respectively espouse them, and both sides usually grow clearer as the controversy advances. South Carolina sees unconstitutionality in the tariff—she sees oppression there, also, and she sees danger. Pennsylvania, with a vision not less sharp, looks at the same tariff, and sees no such thing in it—she sees it all constitutional, all useful, all safe. The faith of South Carolina is strengthened by opposition, and she now not only sees, but resolves, that the tariff is palpably unconstitutional, oppressive, and dangerous; but Pennsylvania, not to be behind her neighbors, and equally willing to strengthen her own faith by a confident asseveration, resolves also, and gives to every warm affirmative of South Carolina, a plain, downright Pennsylvania negative. South Carolina, to show the strength and unity of her opinions, brings her Assembly to a unanimity, within seven votes; Pennsylvania, not to be outdone in this respect more than others, reduces her dissentient faction to five votes. Now, sir, again I ask the gentleman, what is to be done? Are these States both right? Is he bound to consider them both right? If not, which is in the wrong—or, rather, which has the best right to decide?

And if he, and if I, are not to know what the Constitution means, and what it is, still those two State legislatures, and the twenty-two others, shall agree in its construction, what have we sworn to when we have sworn to maintain it? I was forcibly struck, sir, with one reflection as the gentleman went on with his speech. He quoted Mr. Madison's resolutions to prove that a State may interfere, in a case of deliberate, palpable, and dangerous exercise of a power not granted. The honorable member supposes the tariff law to be such an exercise of power, and that, consequently, a case has arisen in which the State may, if it sees fit, interfere by its own law. Now, it so happens, nevertheless, that Mr. Madison himself deems this same tariff law quite constitutional. Instead of a clear and palpable violation, it is, in his judgment, no violation at all. So that, while they use his authority for a hypothetical case, they reject it in the very case before them. All this, sir, shows the inherent futility—I had almost used a stronger word—of conceding this power of interference to the States, and then attempting to secure it from abuse by imposing qualifications of which the States themselves are to judge. One of the things is true: either the laws of the Union are beyond the control of the States, or else we have no Constitution of general government, and are thrust back again to the days of the confederacy.

Let me here say, sir, that if the gentleman's doctrine had been received and acted upon in New England in the times of the embargo and non-intercourse, we should probably not now have been here. The government would very likely have gone to pieces and crumbled into dust. No stronger case can ever arise than existed under those laws; no States can ever entertain a clearer conviction than the New England States then entertained; and if they had been under the influence of that heresy of opinion, as I must call it, which the honorable member espouses, this Union would, in all probability, have been scattered to the four winds. I ask the gentleman, therefore, to apply his principles to that case; I ask him to come

forth and declare whether, in his opinion, the New England States would have been justified in interfering to break up the embargo system, under the conscientious opinions which they held upon it. Had they a right to annul that law? Does he admit, or deny? If that which is thought palpably unconstitutional in South Carolina justified that State in arresting the progress of the law, tell me whether that which was thought palpably unconstitutional also in Massachusetts would have justified her in doing the same thing. Sir, I deny the whole doctrine. It has not a foot of ground in the Constitution to stand on. No public man of reputation ever advanced it in Massachusetts, in the warmest times, or could maintain himself upon it there at any time.

I wish now, sir, to make a remark upon the Virginia resolutions of 1798. I cannot undertake to say how these resolutions were understood by those who passed them. Their language is not a little indefinite. In the case of the exercise, by Congress, of a dangerous power not granted to them, the resolutions assert the right, on the part of the State, to interfere and arrest the progress of the evil. This is susceptible of more than one interpretation. It may mean no more than that the States may interfere by complaint and remonstrance, or by proposing to the people an alternation of the federal Constitution. This would all be quite unobjectionable; or it may be that no more is meant than to assert the general right of revolution, as against all governments, in cases of intolerable oppression. This no one doubts; and this, in my opinion, is all that he who framed these resolutions could have meant by it; for I shall not readily believe that he was ever of opinion that a State, under the Constitution, and in conformity with it, could, upon the ground of her own opinion of its unconstitutionality, however clear and palpable she might think the case, annul a law of Congress, so far as it should operate on herself, by her own legislative power.

I must now beg to ask, sir, whence is this supposed right of the States derived? Where do they get the power to interfere with the laws of the Union? Sir, the opinion which the honorable gentleman maintains is a notion founded in a total misapprehension, in my judgment, of the origin of this government, and of the foundation on which it stands. I hold it to be a popular government, erected by the people, those who administer it responsible to the people, and itself capable of being amended and modified, just as the people may choose it should be. It is as popular, just as truly emanating from the people, as the State governments. It is created for one purpose; the State governments for another. It has its own powers; they have theirs. There is no more authority with them to arrest the operation of a law of Congress than with Congress to arrest the operation of their laws. We are here to administer a Constitution emanating immediately from the people, and trusted by them to our administration. It is not the creature of the State governments. It is of no moment to the argument that certain acts of the State legislatures are necessary to fill our seats in this body. That is not one of their original State powers, a part of the sovereignty of the State. It is a duty which the people, by the Constitution itself, have imposed on the State legislatures, and which they might have left to be performed elsewhere, if they had seen fit. So they have left the choice of President with electors; but all this does not affect the proposition that this whole government—President, Senate, and House of Representatives—is a popular government. It leaves it still all its popular character. The government of a State (in some of the States) is chosen not directly by the people, but by those who are chosen by the people for the purpose of performing, among other duties, that of electing a governor. Is the government of the State on that account not a popular government? This government, sir, is the independent offspring of the popular will. It is not the creature of State legislatures—nay, more, if the whole truth must be told, the people brought it into existence, established it, and have hitherto supported it, for the very purpose, amongst others, of imposing certain salutary restraints on State sovereignties. The States cannot now make war; they cannot contract alliances; they cannot make, each for itself, separate regulations of commerce; they

cannot lay imposts; they cannot coin money. If this Constitution, sir, be the creature of State legislatures, it must be admitted that it has obtained a strange control over the volitions of its creators.

The people, then, sir, erected this government. They gave it a Constitution, and in that Constitution they have enumerated the powers which they bestow on it. They have made it a limited government. They have defined its authority. They have restrained it to the exercise of such powers as are granted; and all others, they declare, are reserved to the States or the people. But, sir, they have not stopped here. If they had, they would have accomplished but half their work. No definition can be so clear as to avoid possibility of doubt; no limitation so precise as to exclude all uncertainty. Who, then, shall construe this grant of the people? Who shall interpret their will, where it may be supposed they have left it doubtful. With whom do they leave this ultimate right of deciding on the powers of the government? Sir, they have settled all this in the fullest manner. They have left it with the government itself, in its appropriate branches. Sir, the very chief end, the main design for which the whole Constitution was framed and adopted, was to establish a government that should not be obliged to act through State agency, or depend on State opinion and discretion. The people had had quite enough of that kind of government under the confederacy. Under that system, the legal action—the application of law to individuals—belonged exclusively to the States. Congress could only recommend—their acts were not of binding force till the States had adopted and sanctioned them. Are we in that condition still? Are we yet at the mercy of State discretion and State construction? Sir, if we are, then vain will be our attempt to maintain the Constitution under which we sit.

But, sir, the people have wisely provided, in the Constitution itself, a proper suitable mode and tribunal for settling questions of constitutional law. There are, in the Constitution, grants of powers to Congress, and restrictions on those powers. There are also prohibitions on the States. Some authority must, therefore, necessarily exist, having the ultimate jurisdiction to fix and ascertain the interpretation of these grants, restrictions, and prohibitions. The Constitution has itself pointed out, ordained, and established that authority. How has it accomplished this great and essential end? By declaring, sir, that "the Constitution and the laws of the United States, made in pursuance thereof, shall be the supreme law of the land, anything in the constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding."

This, sir, was the first great step. By this the supremacy of the Constitution and laws of the United States is declared. The people so will it. No State law is to be valid which comes in conflict with the Constitution or any law of the United States. But who shall decide this question of interference? To whom lies the last appeal? This, sir, the Constitution itself decides also, by declaring "that the judicial power shall extend to all cases arising under the Constitution and laws of the United States." These two provisions, sir, cover the whole ground. They are, in truth, the keystone of the arch. With these it is a constitution; without them it is a confederacy. In pursuance of these clear and express provisions, Congress established, at its very first session, in the judicial act, a mode for carrying them into full effect, and for bringing all questions of constitutional power to the final decision of the Supreme Court. It then, sir, became a government. It then had the means of self-protection; and but for this it would, in all probability, have been now among things which are passed. Having constituted the government, and declared its powers, the people have further said, that since somebody must decide on the extent of these powers, the government shall itself decide—subject always, like other popular governments, to its responsibility to the people. And now, sir, I repeat, how is it that a State legislature acquires any right to interfere? Who, or what, gives them the right to say to the people, "We, who are your agents and servants for one purpose, will undertake to decide that your other agents and servants, appointed by you for another pur-

pose, have transcended the authority you gave them"? The reply would be, I think, not impertinent, "Who made you a judge over another's servants? To their own masters they stand or fall."

Sir, I deny this power of State legislatures altogether. It cannot stand the test of examination. Gentlemen may say that in an extreme case a State government might protect the people from intolerable oppression. Sir, in such a case the people might protect themselves without the aid of the State governments. Such a case warrants revolution. It must make, when it comes, a law for itself. A nullifying act of a State legislature cannot alter the case nor make resistance any more lawful. In maintaining these sentiments, sir, I am but asserting the rights of the people. I state what they have declared, and insist on their right to declare it. They have chosen to repose this power in the general government, and I think it my duty to support it, like other constitutional powers.

For myself, sir, I doubt the jurisdiction of South Carolina or any other State to prescribe my constitutional duty or to settle, between me and the people, the validity of laws of Congress for which I have voted. I decline her umpirage. I have not sworn to support the Constitution according to her construction of its clauses. I have not stipulated, by my oath of office or otherwise, to come under any responsibility except to the people and those whom they have appointed to pass upon the question, whether the laws, supported by my votes, conform to the Constitution of the country. And, sir, if we look to the general nature of the case, could anything have been more preposterous than to have a government for the whole Union and yet left its powers subject, not to one interpretation, but to thirteen or twenty-four interpretations? Instead of one tribunal, established by all, responsible to all, with power to decide for all, shall constitutional questions be left to four-and-twenty popular bodies, each at liberty to decide for itself, and none bound to respect the decision of others; and each at liberty, too, to give a new construction on every new election of its own members? Would anything with such a principle in it, or rather with such a destitution of all principle, be fit to be called a government? No, sir, it should not be denominated a Constitution. It should be called, rather, a collection of topics for everlasting controversy—heads of debate for a disputatious people. It would not be a government. It would not be adequate to any practical good, nor fit for any country to live under. To avoid all possibility of being misunderstood, allow me to repeat again, in the fullest manner, that I claim no powers for the government by force or unfair construction. I admit that it is a government of strictly limited powers, of enumerated, specified, and particularized powers; and that whatsoever is not granted is withheld. But, notwithstanding all this, and however the grant of powers may be expressed, its limits and extent may yet, in some cases, admit of doubt; and the general government would be good for nothing, it would be incapable of long existence if some mode had not been provided in which those doubts, as they should arise, might be peaceably but authoritatively solved.

And now, Mr. President, let me run the honorable gentleman's doctrine a little into its practical application. Let us look at his probable *modus operandi*. If a thing can be done an ingenious man can tell how it is to be done. Now, I wish to be informed how this State interference is to be put in practice. We will take the existing case of the tariff law. South Carolina is said to have made up her opinion upon it. If we do not repeal it—as we probably shall not—she will then apply to the case the remedy of her doctrine. She will, we must suppose, pass a law of her legislature declaring the several acts of Congress, usually called the tariff laws, null and void, so far as they respect South Carolina or the citizens thereof. So far all is a paper transaction and easy enough. But the collector at Charleston is collecting the duties imposed by these tariff laws; he, therefore, must be stopped. The collector will seize the goods if the tariff duties are not paid. The State authorities will undertake their rescue; the marshal, with his posse, will come to the collector's aid; and here the contest begins. The militia of the State will be called out to sustain the nullify-

ing act. They will march, sir, under a very gallant leader, for I believe the honorable member himself commands the militia of that part of the State. He will raise the nullifying act on his standard, and spread it out as his banner. It will have a preamble, bearing that the tariff laws are palpable, deliberate, and dangerous violations of the Constitution. He will proceed, with his banner flying, to the custom-house in Charleston,

"all the while
Sonorous metal blowing martial sounds."

Arrived at the custom-house, he will tell the collector that he must collect no more duties under any of the tariff laws. This he will be somewhat puzzled to say, by-the-way, with a grave countenance, considering what hand South Carolina herself had in that of 1816. But, sir, the collector would, probably, not desist at his bidding. Here would ensue a pause; for they say that a certain stillness precedes the tempest. Before this military array should fall on the custom-house, collector, clerks, and all. it is very probable some of those composing it would request of their gallant commander-in-chief to be informed a little upon the point of law; for they have doubtless a just respect for his opinion as a lawyer, as well as for his bravery as a soldier. They know he has read Blackstone and the Constitution, as well as Turenne and Vauban. They would ask him, therefore, something concerning their rights in this matter. They would inquire whether it was not somewhat dangerous to resist a law of the United States. What would be the nature of their offence, they would wish to learn, if they, by military force and array, resisted the execution in Carolina of a law of the United States and it should turn out after all that the law was constitutional. He would answer, of course, treason. No lawyer could give any other answer. John Fries, he would tell them, had learned that some years ago. How, then, they would ask, do you propose to defend us? We are not afraid of bullets, but treason has a way of taking people off that we do not much relish. How do you propose to defend us? "Look at my floating banner," he would reply; "see there the nullifying law!" Is it your opinion, gallant commander, they would then say, that if we should be indicted for treason, that same floating banner of yours would make a good plea in bar? "South Carolina is a sovereign State," he would reply. That is true; but would the judge admit our plea? "These tariff laws," he would repeat, "are unconstitutional, palpably, deliberately, dangerously." That all may be so; but if the tribunals should not happen to be of that opinion, shall we swing for it? We are ready to die for our country, but it is rather an awkward business, this dying without touching the ground. After all, this is a sort of hemp-tax, worse than any part of the tariff.

Mr. President, the honorable gentleman would be in a dilemma like that of another great general. He would have a knot before him which he could not untie. He must cut it with his sword. He must say to his followers: "Defend yourselves with your bayonets." And this is war—civil war.

Direct collision, therefore, between force and force is the unavoidable result of that remedy for the revision of unconstitutional laws which the gentleman contends for. It must happen in the very first case to which it is applied. Is not this the plain result?—to resist by force the execution of a law generally is treason. Can the courts of the United States take notice of the indulgence of a State to commit treason? The common saying that a State cannot commit treason herself is nothing to the purpose. Can it authorize others to do it? If John Fries had produced an act of Pennsylvania annulling the law of Congress would it have helped his case? Talk about it as we will, these doctrines go the length of revolution. They are incompatible with any peaceable administration of the government. They lead directly to disunion and civil commotion; and therefore it is that at the commencement, when they are first found to be maintained by respectable men and in a tangible form, that I enter my public protest against them all.

The honorable gentleman argues that if this government be the sole judge of the extent of its own powers, whether that right of judging be in Congress or the Supreme Court, it equally subverts State

sovereignty. This the gentleman sees, or thinks he sees, although he cannot perceive how the right of judging, in his manner, if left to the exercise of State legislatures, has any tendency to subvert the government of the Union. The gentleman's opinion may be that the right ought not to have been lodged with the general government; he may like better such a constitution as we should have under the right of State interference; but I ask him to meet me on the plain matter of fact—I ask him to meet me on the Constitution itself—I ask him if the power is not found there—clearly and visibly found there.

But, sir, what is this danger, and what the grounds of it? Let it be remembered that the Constitution of the United States is not unalterable. It is to continue in its present form no longer than the people who established it shall choose to continue it. If they shall become convinced that they have made an injudicious or inexpedient partition and distribution of power between the State governments and the general government, they can alter that distribution at will.

If anything be found in the national Constitution, either by original provision or subsequent interpretation, which ought not to be in it, the people know how to get rid of it. If any construction be established acceptable to them so as to become practically a part of the Constitution, they will amend it at their own sovereign pleasure. But while the people choose to maintain it as it is, while they are satisfied with it, and refuse to change it, who has given, or who can give, to the State legislatures a right to alter it, either by interference, construction, or otherwise? Gentlemen do not seem to recollect that the people have any power to do anything for themselves; they imagine there is no safety for them any longer than they are under the close guardianship of the State legislatures. Sir, the people have not trusted their safety, in regard to the general Constitution, to these hands. They have required other security and taken other bonds. They have chosen to trust themselves—first, to the plain words of the instrument, and to such construction as the government itself, in doubtful cases, should put on its own powers, under their oaths of office, and subject to their responsibility to them; just as the people of a State trust their own State governments with a similar power. Secondly, they have reposed their trust in the efficacy of frequent elections and in their own power to remove their own servants and agents whenever they see cause. Thirdly, they have reposed trust in the judicial power, which, in order that it might be trustworthy, they have made as respectable, as disinterested, and as independent as practicable. Fourthly, they have seen fit to rely, in case of necessity or high expediency, on their known and admitted power to alter or amend the Constitution, peaceably and quietly, whenever experience shall point out defects or imperfections. And finally, the people of the United States have at no time, in no way, directly or indirectly, authorized any State legislature to construe or interpret their instrument of government, much less to interfere by their own power to arrest its course and operation.

If, sir, the people in these respects had done otherwise than they have done, their Constitution could neither have been preserved nor would it have been worth preserving. And if its plain provision shall now be disregarded, and these new doctrines interpolated in it, it will become as feeble and helpless a being as enemies, whether early or more recent, could possibly desire. It will exist in every State, but as a poor dependent on State permission. It must borrow leave to be, and will be, no longer than State pleasure or State discretion sees fit to grant the indulgence and to prolong its poor existence.

But, sir, although there are fears, there are hopes also. The people have preserved this, their own chosen Constitution, for forty years, and have seen their happiness, prosperity, and renown grow with its growth and strengthen with its strength. They are now generally strongly attached to it. Overthrown by direct assault it cannot be; evaded, undermined, nullified it will not be if we and those who shall succeed us here, as agents and representatives of the people, shall conscientiously and vigilantly discharge the two great branches of our public trust faithfully to preserve and wisely to administer it.

Mr. President, I have thus stated the

reasons of my dissent to the doctrines which have been advanced and maintained. I am conscious of having detained you and the Senate much too long. I was drawn into the debate with no previous deliberation such as is suited to the discussion of so great and important a subject. But it is a subject of which my heart is full, and I have not been willing to suppress the utterance of its spontaneous sentiments.

I cannot even now persuade myself to relinquish it without expressing once more my deep conviction that since it respects nothing less than the union of the States, it is of most vital and essential importance to the public happiness. I profess, sir, in my career hitherto to have kept steadily in view the prosperity and honor of the whole country and the preservation of our federal Union. It is to that Union we owe our safety at home and our consideration and dignity abroad. It is to that Union that we are chiefly indebted for whatever makes us most proud of our country. That Union we reached only by the discipline of our virtues in the severe school of adversity. It had its origin in the necessities of disordered finance, prostrate commerce, and ruined credit. Under its benign influence these great interests immediately awoke as from the dead, and sprang forth with newness of life. Every year of its duration has teemed with fresh proofs of its utility and its blessings; and although our territory has stretched out wider and wider and our population spread farther and farther, they have not outrun its protection or its benefits. It has been to us all a copious fountain of national, social, personal happiness. I have not allowed myself, sir, to look beyond the Union, to see what might lie hidden in the dark recesses behind. I have not coolly weighed the chances of preserving liberty when the bonds that unite us together shall be broken asunder. I have not accustomed myself to hang over the precipice of disunion, to see whether, with my short sight, I can fathom the depth of the abyss below; nor could I regard him as a safe counsellor in the affairs of this government whose thoughts should be mainly bent on considering, not how the Union should be best preserved, but how tolerable might be the condition of the people when it shall be broken up and destroyed. While the Union lasts we have high, exciting, gratifying prospects spread out before us, for us and our children. Beyond that I seek not to penetrate the veil. God grant that, in my day at least, that curtain may not rise. God grant that on my vision never may be opened what lies behind. When my eyes shall be turned to behold for the last time the sun in heaven, may I not see him shining on the broken and dishonored fragments of a once glorious Union; on States dissevered, discordant, belligerent; on a land rent with civil feud, or drenched, it may be, in fraternal blood! Let their last feeble and lingering glance rather behold the gorgeous ensign of the republic, now known and honored throughout the earth, still full high advanced, its arms and trophies streaming in their original lustre, not a stripe erased or polluted, not a single star obscured—bearing for its motto no such miserable interrogatory as, What is all this worth? nor those other words of delusion and folly, Liberty first, and Union afterwards; but everywhere, spread all over in characters of living light, blazing on all its ample folds, as they float over the sea, and over the land, and in every wind under the whole heavens, that other sentiment, dear to every true American heart—Liberty and Union, now and forever, one and inseparable!

Webster, JAMES, British military officer; born about 1743; entered the army, and became major of the 33d Foot in 1771; fought with distinction in the Revolutionary War; and became lieutenant-colonel. He took part in the operations in New Jersey in 1777, at Verplanck's Point in 1778, in Cornwallis's campaign in the South, and in the battle of Guilford, N. C., in 1781. In the latter engagement he was so severely wounded that he died soon afterwards.

Webster, JOHN ADAMS, naval officer; born in Harford county, Md., Sept. 19, 1785; joined the navy in 1812. When the British began their march towards Washington he was assigned shore duty, and placed in charge of Battery Babcock, at Bladensburg, near Baltimore. During the night of Sept. 13 he detected the enemy endeavoring to land, and, in conjunction

with Fort Covington, forced them to withdraw, thus saving Baltimore. He received swords of honor from Baltimore and the State of Maryland; was promoted captain in the revenue marine service in 1819; and commanded a squadron of eight cutters in the Mexican War. He died in Harford county, Md., July 4, 1876.

His son, JOHN ADAMS, naval officer; born in Mount Adams, Md., June 26, 1823; joined the revenue marine service in 1842; promoted captain in 1860; served in the Civil War; commanded the *Dobbin* at Hampton Roads, and was the only United States officer that saved his vessel from capture by the Confederates. He died in Ogdensburg, N. Y., April 6, 1875.

Webster. JOHN WHITE, chemist; born in Boston, Mass., May 20, 1793; graduated at Harvard College in 1811, and at its medical department in 1815; accepted the chair of Chemistry and Mineralogy there in 1827, and held it until his death. In 1842 he was loaned a sum of money by Dr. George Parkman, who later increased it to nearly $2,000. Subsequently Parkman accused Professor Webster of dishonesty. A meeting to settle matters was appointed for Nov. 23, 1849, at the college laboratory, and on that day Parkman was murdered. In his confession Professor Webster said "he called me a scoundrel and a liar, and went on heaping on me the most bitter taunts and opprobrious epithets." The facts brought out in the trial showed that Parkman had been killed by a blow on the head with a billet of wood. The body was then dismembered, parts of it burned with the clothing, and other parts concealed until they could be destroyed. At the trial 116 witnesses were examined and every effort made to save the defendant, but the jury found him guilty of murder in the first degree, and he was hanged in Boston, Mass., Aug. 30, 1850.

Webster, JOSEPH DANA, military officer; born in Old Hampton, N. H., Aug. 25, 1811; graduated at Dartmouth College in 1832, and was made lieutenant of topographical engineers in July, 1838. He served with distinction through the war with Mexico; resigned in 1854, and settled in Chicago. In April, 1861, he was placed in charge of the construction of fortifications at Cairo and Paducah, and in February, 1862, became colonel of the 1st Illinois Artillery, assisting in the capture of Forts Henry and Donelson. He had charge of all the artillery in the battle of Shiloh, and was chief of General Grant's staff until October, 1862, when he was made a brigadier-general of volunteers. Grant sent him to make a survey of the Illinois and Michigan Canal, and afterwards he became General Sherman's chief of staff. General Webster was with General Thomas at the battle of Nashville, and was brevetted major-general of volunteers in 1865; resigned in November following. He died in Chicago, Ill., March 12, 1876.

Webster, NOAH, philologist; born in Hartford, Conn., Oct. 16, 1758; graduated at Yale College in 1778, and was admitted to the bar in 1781. The next year he opened a classical school at Goshen, N. Y., and in 1783 published at Hartford his *First Part of a Grammatical Institute of the English Language*, which was soon followed by the second and third parts. His *American Spelling-book* was published in 1783. In 1785 he visited the Southern

NOAH WEBSTER.

States to find aid in procuring the enactment of State copyright laws; and in 1789 he published *Dissertations on the English Language*, a series of lectures which he had delivered in various American cities in 1786. Webster was at the head of an academy at Philadelphia in 1787, and took great interest in the proceedings of the convention there that framed the national Constitution. In 1788 he published the *American Magazine* in

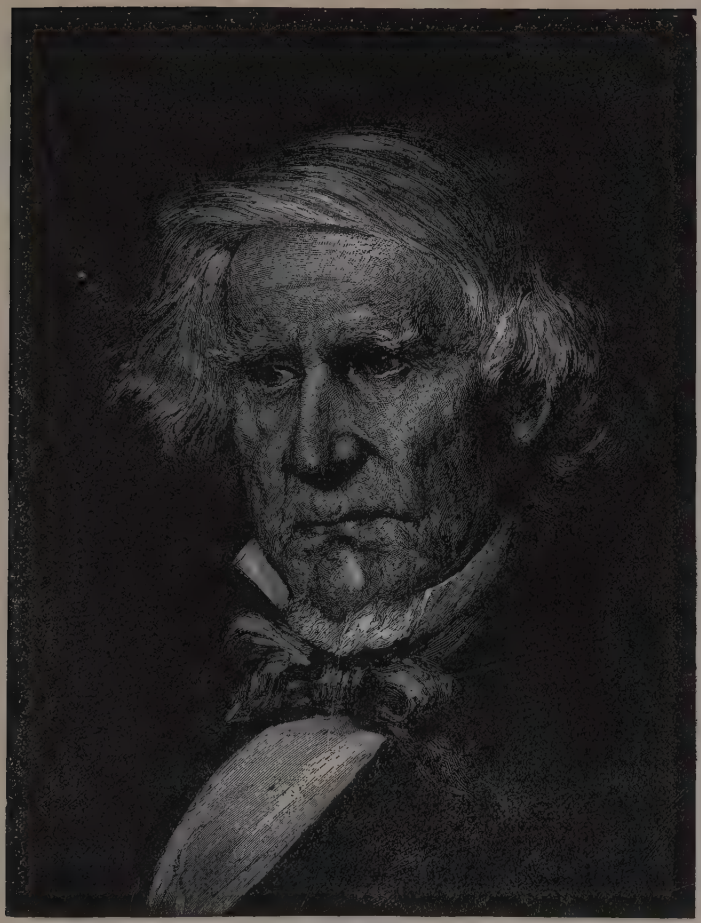
New York, and returned to Hartford in 1789 and practised law. In 1793 he edited and published in New York a daily paper, the *Minerva*, and a semi-weekly, the *Herald*, in support of Washington's administration. These were afterwards known as the *Commercial Advertiser* and the *New York Spectator*. In 1798 he removed to New Haven, and in 1806 published a *Compendious Dictionary*. In 1807 he published a *Philosophical and Practical Grammar of the English Language*, and, the same year, began the great work of his life, a *Dictionary of the English Language*. The first edition appeared in 1828, in 2 volumes, and the second in 1840, in 2 volumes. He returned to New Haven in 1828, and resided there until his death, May 28, 1843.

Webster, PELATIAH, political economist; born in Lebanon, Conn., in 1725; graduated at Yale College in 1746; took a course in theology, and was pastor in Greenwich, Mass., in 1748–49; removed to Philadelphia, where he engaged in business. During the Revolutionary War he was a stanch patriot; was made a prisoner by the British in 1788; confined in the city jail for 132 days; and had a part of his property confiscated. He was the author of *Essays on Free-trade and Finance; Dissertation on the Political Union and Constitution of the Thirteen United States of North America; Reasons for Repealing the Act of the Legislature which took away the Charter of the Bank of North America;* and *Political Essays on the Nature and Operation of Money, Public Finances, and Other Subjects, Published during the American War*. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., in September, 1795. On the ground that in his pamphlet, published in 1793, entitled *Dissertation on the Political Union*, etc., he had originated the federal elements in our Constitution, which Hamilton and others used in drafting that document for the convention of 1787, a bill was introduced in Congress in 1911, providing for the erection of a monument to his memory at the national capital.

Webster, SIR RICHARD EVERARD. See ALVERSTONE, RICHARD EVERARD, BARON.

Weed, STEPHEN HINSDALE, military officer; born in New York City in 1834; graduated at West Point in 1854; served against the Indians from 1857 to 1860; became captain of artillery in 1861, and served throughout the war on the Peninsula, at Manassas, South Mountain, and Antietam, and behaved gallantly at Chancellorsville, for which he was made brigadier-general of volunteers, Jan. 6, 1863. He commanded the 3d Brigade of the 5th Army Corps at the battle of Gettysburg, and while holding back the Confederates from an important point on Little Round Top, was fatally shot, July 2, 1863, but exclaimed as he fell, "I would rather die here than that the rebels should gain an inch of ground." The position was afterwards named "Weed's Hill."

Weed, THURLOW, journalist; born in Cairo, N. Y., Nov. 15, 1797; became an orphan in early childhood, with a very scant school education. When fifteen years of age he entered the army as a volunteer, serving throughout the War of 1812; at the age of twenty-one began the publication of a newspaper, the *Agriculturist*, at Norwish, N. Y. Two years later he founded the *Onondaga County Republican*. He was unsuccessful, and worked as a journeyman printer until 1825, when he was engaged to edit a daily paper at Rochester, N. Y., an anti-masonic paper, and was twice elected to the legislature. In 1830 he became editor of the Albany *Evening Journal*, in opposition to the "Albany Regency," the nullification policy of Calhoun, and also to the policy of President Jackson, and conducted it with great ability more than thirty years. Throughout this period he was influential in both State and national politics, and became known as the most adroit of party managers. He was an original leader of the Whig party, active in the election of Governor Seward in 1838 and 1840, in President Harrison's nomination in 1836 and election of 1840, in President Taylor's and General Scott's nominations in 1848 and 1852 respectively. He advocated the nomination of Seward for the Presidency in 1856 and 1860, and cordially supported Frémont and Lincoln. In 1861 he went to Europe with Archbishop Hughes and Bishop McIlvaine, under a commission from the national government, to endeavor to prevent foreign recognition of the Confederacy. On his return he settled in New York City, where he edited the *Commercial Advertiser* till 1867. He published *Letters*



THURLOW WEED.

from Europe and the West Indies, and *Reminiscences*. He died in New York City, Nov. 22, 1882. His *Autobiography* was published in Boston in 1833.

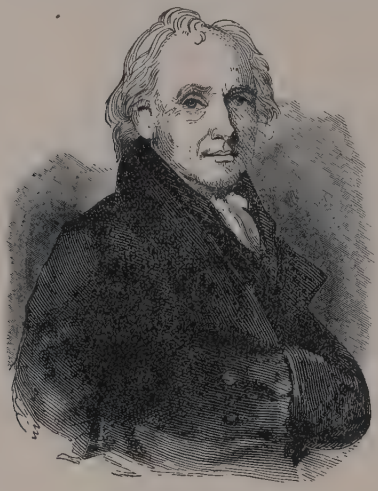
Weeden, GEORGE, military officer; born in Fredericksburg, Va., about 1730; was postmaster and tavern-keeper there before the Revolution; became colonel of Virginia troops in the summer of 1776. He was made brigadier-general in 1777, and led a brigade in the battles of Brandywine and Germantown. He left the service at Valley Forge, but resumed the command of his brigade in 1780, and served during the siege of Yorktown. He died in Fredericksburg, Va., after 1790.

Weehawken, N. J., opposite New York City; is noted as the duelling-ground of Alexander Hamilton and Aaron Burr.

Weeks, STEPHEN BEAUREGARD, educator; born in Pasquotank county, N. C., Feb. 2, 1865; graduated at the University of North Carolina in 1886; spent over fifteen years in collecting historical material relating to North Carolina; was associate editor of the *Annual Report* of the United States commissioner of education in 1894–99; was in the United States Indian school service in 1899–1907; and was one of three founders of the Southern History Association. His publications include *Press of North Carolina in*

the Nineteenth Century; A Bibliography of the Historical Literature of North Carolina; Southern Quakers and Slavery; Index to North Carolina Records; Willie P. Mangum; Negro Suffrage in the South, etc.

Weems, Mason Locke, historian; born in Dumfries, Va., about 1760; studied theology in London; was rector several years of Mount Vernon parish (Pohick Church) at the time Washington attended there, and was for a long while a successful travelling agent for the sale of books for Matthew Cary, of Philadelphia, travelling extensively in the Southern States. He was eccentric, and, at public gatherings, would address crowds upon the merits of his books, interspersing his remarks with stories and anecdotes. He would also play the violin at dances, and preach when occasion offered. Weems wrote a pamphlet entitled *The Drunkard's Looking - glass*, illustrated with rude wood-cuts. This pamphlet he sold wherever he travelled. He entered taverns, addressed the company usually assembled in such places, imitated the foolish acts of an intoxicated person, and then offered his pamphlets for sale. His mimicry of a drunken man was generally taken as good-natured fun. He wrote lives of Washington, William Penn, Dr. Franklin, and General Marion, and was also the author of several tracts. His *Life of Washington* passed through nearly forty editions. He died in Beaufort, S. C., May 23, 1825.



MASON LOCKE WEEMS.

Weeping - willow, The. After the South Sea bubble in England had collapsed, one of the speculators who had been ruined went to Smyrna to mend his fortunes. He was a friend of Pope, the poet, and sent him a box of figs. In the box Pope found the twig of a tree. He had just established his villa at Twickenham. He planted the twig (fortunately) by the shore of the Thames, not knowing of what tree it was. It grew, and was a weeping-willow, such as the captive Jews wept under on the banks of the rivers of Babylon. That twig was planted in 1722. In 1775 one of the young British officers who came to Boston with the British army brought a twig from Pope's then huge willow, expecting, when the "rebellion" should be crushed, in a few weeks, to settle in America on some confiscated lands of the "rebels," where he would plant his willow. John Parke Custis, son of Mrs. Washington, and aide to General Washington, at Cambridge, going on errands to the British camp, under a flag of truce, became acquainted with the owner of the willow twig (which was wrapped in oiled

POHICK CHURCH.

silk). The disappointed subaltern gave the twig to Custis, who planted it near his home on his estate at Abingdon, Va., where it became the progenitor of all the weeping-willows in America.

Weightman, Richard Hanson, military officer; born in Maryland in 1818; entered the United States Military Academy in 1837; served in the Mexican War as captain in the Missouri Light Infantry; was paymaster in the United States army in 1848; was honorably discharged in 1849, and settled in New Mexico. He was a Democratic member of Congress in 1851–53; entered the Civil War as colonel of a regiment of the Missouri State Guard; took part in the battle of Carthage in 1861; and was killed while commanding a brigade at Wilson's Creek, Mo., Aug. 10, 1861.

Weights and Measures. The following are the various weights and measures in use in the United States:

LONG MEASURE.

12	inches	= 1 foot.	
3	feet	= 1 yard	= 36 inches.
5½	yards	= 1 rod	= 16½ feet.
40	rods	= 1 furlong	= 660 feet.
8	furlongs	= 1 mile	= 5,280 feet.

MARINERS' MEASURE.

6	feet	= 1 fathom.
120	fathoms	= 1 cable length.
7½	cable lengths	= 1 mile.
5,280	feet	= 1 statute mile.
6,085	feet	= 1 nautical mile.
3	marine miles	= 1 marine league.

LIQUID MEASURE.

4	gills	= 1 pint.
2	pints	= 1 quart.
4	quarts	= 1 gallon.
31½	gallons	= 1 barrel.
2	barrels	= 1 hogshead.

SQUARE MEASURE.

144	square inches	= 1 square foot.
9	square feet	= 1 square yard.
30¼	square yards	= 1 square rod.
160	square rods	= 1 acre.
640	acres	= 1 square mile.
36	square miles	= 1 township.

CUBIC MEASURE.

1,728	cubic inches	= 1 cubic foot.
27	cubic feet	= 1 cubic yard.
128	cubic feet	= 1 cord of wood or stone

1 gallon contains 231 cubic inches.
1 bushel contains 2,150.4 cubic inches.
A cord of wood is 8 ft. long, 4 ft. wide, and 4 ft. high.

DRY MEASURE.

2	pints	= 1 quart.
8	quarts	= 1 peck.
4	pecks	= 1 bushel.

CIRCULAR MEASURE.

60	seconds	= 1 minute.
60	minutes	= 1 degree.
360	degrees	= 1 circle.
1	degree	= 60 geographic miles.
1	geographic mile	= 1.1527 statute miles.
1	degree of the equator	= 69.124 statute miles.

TIME MEASURE.

60	seconds	= 1 minute.
60	minutes	= 1 hour.
24	hours	= 1 day.
365	days	= 1 year.
100	years	= 1 century.

CLOTH MEASURE.

2¼	inches	= 1 nail.
4	nails	= 1 quarter.
4	quarters	= 1 yard.

SURVEYORS' MEASURE.

7.92	inches	= 1 link.
25	links	= 1 rod.
4	rods	= 1 chain.
10	square chains	= 1 acre.

APOTHECARIES' WEIGHT.

20	grains	= 1 scruple.
3	scruples	= 1 dram.
8	drams	= 1 ounce.
12	ounces	= 1 pound.

AVOIRDUPOIS WEIGHT.

27 11-32	grains	= 1 dram.
16	drams	= 1 ounce.
16	ounces	= 1 pound.
2,000	lbs.	= 1 short ton.
2,240	lbs.	= 1 long ton.

TROY WEIGHT.

24	grains	= 1 pennyweight.
20	pennyw's	= 1 ounce.
12	ounces	= 1 pound.

STATIONERS' TABLE.

24	sheets	= 1 quire.
20	quires	= 1 ream.
2	reams	= 1 bundle.
5	bundles	= 1 bale.

COUNTING.

12	things	= 1 dozen.
12	dozen	= 1 gross.
12	gross	= 1 great gross.
20	things	= 1 score.

MISCELLANEOUS.

3	inches	= 1 palm.
4	inches	= 1 hand.
6	inches	= 1 span.
18	inches	= 1 cubit.
21.8	inches	= 1 bible cubit.
2½	feet	= 1 military pace.

By the convention of May 20, 1875, between the United States, Germany, France, Italy, Russia, Sweden and Norway, Switzerland, Turkey, Portugal, Austro-Hungary, Denmark, Spain, Belgium, The Argentine Confederation, Peru, Brazil, and Venezuela, a national bureau was established at Paris for the purpose of securing

international uniformity and precision in standards of weights and measures. See METRIC SYSTEM.

Weir, JOHN FERGUSON, artist; born in West Point, N. Y., Aug. 14, 1841; received a common-school education; studied art; opened a studio in New York in 1861; elected an associate of the National Academy of Design in 1864, and an Academician in 1866; and became director and professor of painting and design in Yale School of Fine Arts in 1869. He was judge of fine arts at the Centennial Exposition in Philadelphia in 1876. His best-known paintings are *The Gun Foundry; Forging the Shaft;* and *Sunset at West Point.* His works in sculpture include statues of President Woolsey and Professor Silliman, of Yale; and his writings, *John Trumbull and his Works.*

Weir, ROBERT WALTER, painter; born in New Rochelle, N. Y., June 18, 1803; studied art in Italy three years, and, returning home in 1827, opened a studio in New York City. From 1830 to 1834 he was professor of perspective in the National Academy of Design; in the latter year was appointed instructor in drawing in the United States Military Academy; and held that post and performed its duties with success for a little more than forty years. Professor's Weir's paintings are not numerous, but are highly valued for the truthfulness and the delicacy of sentiment which they all exhibit. Among the most noted of his pictures are the *Embarkation of the Pilgrims,* painted for the rotunda of the Capitol at Washington; *The Antiquary Introducing Lovel to his Womankind; Red Jacket; Columbus before the Council at Salamanca; The Landing of Hendrik Hudson; The Greek Girl, Rebecca; Pæstum by Moonlight; The Presentation in the Temple; The Dying Greek; The Taking of the Veil;* and *The Journey of the Disciples to Emmaus.* He died in New York City, May 1, 1889.

Weiser, CONRAD, pioneer; born in Germany in 1696; emigrated to New York in 1729; removed to Pennsylvania in 1733. Through his influence with the Six Nations on the one hand, and the colonial governments of Pennsylvania, New York, Maryland, Virginia, and Carolina, on the other, he succeeded in deferring the alliance between the French and the Indians until the American colonists had grown strong enough to successfully defend themselves.

Weiss, LEWIS, jurist; born in Berlin, Germany, Dec. 28, 1717, emigrated to America in 1755 and settled in Philadelphia. In 1786 he was appointed a justice of the peace and in the same year a justice of the court of common pleas. He assisted in the founding of the German Society and was its president in 1783–84. He published the *Collection of the Laws of Pennsylvania.* He died in Philadelphia, Oct. 22, 1796.

Weiss, JOHN, author; born in Boston, Mass., June 28, 1818; graduated at Harvard College in 1837, and at Harvard Divinity School; and became pastor of a Unitarian church in Watertown in 1843, and again in 1859. In 1870 he retired to devote himself to literature. He published *Æsthetic Prose,* a translation of Schiller's philosophical and æsthetic essays, and *Life and Correspondence of Theodore Parker.* He was attached to the transcendental school of philosophy, and was an earnest abolitionist and advocate of woman's rights. He died in Boston, Mass., March 9, 1879.

Weiss, or Weitzius, GEORGE MICHAEL, clergyman; born in the Palatinate of the Rhine, Germany, in 1697; ordained in 1725; and emigrated to the United States in 1727, settling in Pennsylvania, where he organized a Reformed Dutch Church at Skippack. Later he held pastorates in German churches in Schoharie and Dutchess counties, N. Y., for fourteen years, when he was compelled to go to Pennsylvania to escape the attacks of the Indians; and preached in Old Gosenhoppen and Great Swamp, Pa., from 1746 till his death in 1762. He published *An Account and Instruction Relating to the Colony and Church of Pennsylvania; Arrangement with the Classis of Amsterdam for the Care of Germans in Pennsylvania; An Account of the Indians,* etc.

Weissenfels, FREDERICK H., BARON DE, military officer; born in Prussia in 1738; was an officer in the British army; emigrated to the United States in 1763 and settled in Dutchess county, N. Y. He served in the Revolutionary War and was present at the surrender of Burgoyne, and at the battle of Monmouth. He accom-

panied Gen. John Sullivan in his expedition against the Six Nations in 1779. He died in New Orleans, La., May 14, 1806.

Weitzel, GODFREY, military engineer; born in Cincinnati, O., Nov. 1, 1835; graduated at West Point in 1855. Early in the Civil War he was attached to the staff of General Butler in the Department of the Gulf, and became acting mayor of New Orleans after its capture. In August, 1862, he was made brigadier-general of volunteers, and did good service in Louisiana, commanding the advance of General Banks's army in operations there in 1863. He was at the capture of Port Hudson. In 1864 he commanded a division in the Army of the James, and was Butler's chief engineer at Bermuda Hundred. He was made commander of the 18th Army Corps, and was the leader of the land attack on Fort Fisher in December, 1864, in which he was second in command. Weitzel was made major-general of volunteers in November, 1864. During the spring of 1865 he was very active in operations against Richmond on the left bank of the James River, and led the troops that first entered Richmond after the flight of the Confederates from it. He was brevetted major-general, United States army, in March, 1865, and promoted lieutenant-colonel of engineers in 1882. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., March 19, 1884.

Welch, ASHBEL, civil engineer; born in Nelson, N. Y., Dec. 4, 1809; was engaged in engineering work on the Lehigh Canal in 1827; appointed chief engineer of the Delaware and Raritan Canal in 1835; and later located and built the Belvidere and Delaware Railroad, and prepared the plans for the Delaware and Chesapeake Canal in 1853. He was manager and afterwards president of the Pennsylvania Railroad lines in New Jersey; was the first to introduce the block system of operating trains in the United States; president of the American Society of Civil Engineers in 1881; and author of papers on railway engineering and economics. He died in Lambertville, N. J., Sept. 25, 1882.

Welch, MOSES COOK, clergyman; born in Mansfield, Conn., Feb. 22, 1754; graduated at Yale College in 1772; taught school; studied law and medicine; taught again; then studied theology; was ordained in 1784, and succeeded his father as pastor of a church in Mansfield, which he held till his death, April 21, 1824. He wrote *Eulogy on Benjamin Chaplin; The Addresser Addressed*, etc.

Weld, HORATIO HASTINGS, author; born in Boston, Mass., Feb. 4, 1811; became a printer; was editor of newspapers in Lowell, Boston, New York, and Philadelphia; was ordained in the Protestant Episcopal Church in 1845; and held pastorates in Downingtown, Pa., and Morristown and Riverton, N. J.; and wrote *Benjamin Franklin's Autobiography, with a Narrative of his Public Life and Service*, etc. He died in Riverton, N. J., Aug. 27, 1888.

Weld, ISAAC, traveller; born in Dublin, Ireland, March 15, 1774; was an extensive traveller on the North American continent, making most of his journeys on foot, horseback, or in a canoe. He was the author of *Travels through the States of North America and the Provinces of Upper and Lower Canada during the Years 1795, 1796, and 1797.* He died in County Dublin, Ireland, Aug. 4, 1856.

Weld, THEODORE DWIGHT, reformer; born in Hampton, Conn., Nov. 23, 1803; received a good education; was an abolitionist lecturer in 1833–36; became editor of the books and pamphlets of the American Anti-slavery Society in the latter year. In 1854 he founded a school for both white and negro children at Eagleswood, N. J. His publications include *The Power of Congress over the District of Columbia; The Bible against Slavery; American Slavery as It Is, or the Testimony of a Thousand Witnesses* (said to have suggested the writing of *Uncle Tom's Cabin* to Harriet Beecher Stowe); and *Slavery and the Internal Slave-trade in the United States.* He died in Hyde Park, Mass., Feb. 3, 1895.

Welde, THOMAS, author; born in England, presumably in 1590; graduated at Cambridge University in 1613; was ordained in the Established Church, but owing to his Puritan belief sailed for Boston in 1632; and became minister of the first church in Roxbury, in July of that year. In the following November John Eliot was made his associate. He was prominent in arousing opposition to Anne Hutchinson and her teachings, and was active in her trial. He returned to Eng-

land in 1641. He was the author of *A Short Story of the Rise, Reign, and Ruin of the Antinomians, Familists, and Libertines that infested the Churches of New England; Antinomians and Familists Condemned;* and joint author of *The Perfect Pharisee under Monkish Holiness* (written against the Quakers), etc. He died in England, March 23, 1662.

Weldon Railroad, THE. On Aug. 18, 1864, there was a severe battle a few miles below Petersburg, Va., for the possession of the Weldon Railroad, which connected Richmond with the South. Warren, with the 5th Corps, reached the railroad without opposition. Leaving Griffin to hold the point seized, Warren started for Petersburg, and soon fell in with a strong Confederate force, which captured 200 of a Maryland brigade. A sharp fight ensued. Warren held the ground he had gained, but at the cost of 1,000 men killed, wounded, and prisoners. Lee then sent a heavy force under Hill to drive Warren from the road. Hill fell upon Warren's flank and rear, held by Crawford's division, and in the fierce struggle that ensued the Confederates captured 2,500 of the Nationals, among them Gen. J. Hayes. Yet the Nationals clung to the railroad; and, reinforcements coming up, Hill fled. Warren recovered the ground he had lost and intrenched. On the 21st the Confederates returned and assailed the Nationals with a cross-fire of thirty guns, and also by columns of infantry. The assailants were soon defeated, with a loss of 500 prisoners. The whole Confederate loss was fully 1,200 men. One of Lee's most important lines of communication was thus permanently wrested from him. See REAM'S STATION.

Welland Canal. See CANALS.

Welles, GIDEON, naval officer; born in Glastonbury, Conn., July 1, 1802; studied law under Judges Williams and Ellsworth, and in 1826 became editor and a proprietor of the Hartford *Times*, advocating the election of General Jackson to the Presidency. He served in the Connecticut legislature in 1827–35; was comptroller, and in 1836–41 postmaster, at Hartford. In 1846 he was chief of a bureau in the Navy Department, having given up his editorial duties. He became identified with the Republican party in 1857, and was chairman of the Connecticut delegation in the convention at Chicago that nominated Mr. Lincoln for the Presidency, who in 1861

GIDEON WELLES.

called Mr. Welles to his cabinet as Secretary of the Navy, in which capacity he served until 1869. He died in Hartford, Conn., Feb. 11, 1878.

Welles, THOMAS, colonial governor; born in England in 1598; came to the United States before 1636, and settled in Hartford, Conn., where he was magistrate from 1637 till his death in Wethersfield, Conn., Jan. 14, 1660. He was treasurer of the colony in 1639–51; secretary of state in 1640–48; commissioner of the United Colonies in 1649 and 1654; moderator of the General Court during the absence of Gov. Edward Hopkins in 1654; deputy-governor in the same year; governor in 1655 and 1658; and deputy-governor again in 1659.

Wellesley College, an institution in Wellesley, Mass., for the education of women exclusively. It was founded in 1870 by HENRY TOWLE DURANT (*q. v.*), at a cost of $1,000,000, and maintained by him until his death, and afterwards by his widow. Since its opening in 1875 three additional buildings have been erected—the School of Music, Farnsworth School of Art, and the chemistry building. The college has grounds and buildings valued at over $1,270,000; endowment funds, $1,150,000; volumes in the library, over 67,000; average number of faculty,

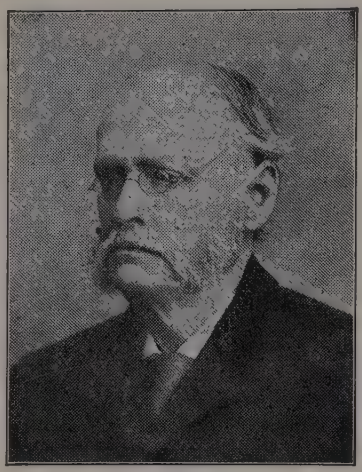
125; average student attendance, 1,400; fellowship, 1; scholarship, 111; ordinary annual income, $700,000.

Welling, James Clarke, educator; born in Trenton, N. J., July 14, 1825; graduated at Princeton College in 1844; studied law, which he abandoned in 1848, when he was made principal of the New York Collegiate School; was literary editor of the *National Intelligencer,* published in Washington, in 1850–65. In this paper he warmly supported the Union cause and was a strong advocate of Lincoln's early policy of paying loyal owners for their freed slaves, but did not support the Emancipation Proclamation. He became president of St. John's College, Annapolis, in 1867, and four years later accepted the presidency of Columbian College in Washington, D. C. He died in Hartford, Conn., Sept. 4, 1894.

Wells, Calvin, capitalist; born in Genesee county, N. Y., Dec. 26, 1827; prominent in steel manufacture. In 1878 he bought the Philadelphia *Press.* He died in Pittsburgh, Pa., Aug. 2, 1909.

Wells, Clark Henry, naval officer; born in Reading, Pa., Sept. 22, 1822; graduated at the United States Naval Academy in 1846; served in the Mexican War; was on the *Petrel* when that vessel took part in covering the disembarking of Scott's army and in the bombardment of Vera Cruz; and accompanied the expedition which took Tampico and Tuspan in 1846–47. When the Civil War broke out he was made executive officer of the steamer *Susquehanna,* which participated in the capture of Port Royal, S. C.; promoted lieutenant-commander in July, 1862; and was present at the battle of Mobile Bay. Subsequently he served with Admiral Porter at Hampton Roads; was promoted captain in June, 1871; rear-admiral, Aug. 1, 1884; and was retired Sept. 22 following. He died in Washington, D. C., Jan. 28, 1888.

Wells, David Ames, economist; born in Springfield, Mass., June 17, 1828; graduated at Williams College in 1847 and at the Lawrence Scientific School 1851; appointed assistant professor in the last institution; chairman of a commission to consider the best way to raise money by taxation for the needs of the government in 1866; special commissioner of revenue in 1866–70; and became a member of the board of arbitration for railroads in 1879. He was a voluminous writer on economic subjects. His publications include *Our Burden and Strength; The Creed of Free-trade; Production and Distribution of Wealth; Why We Trade and How We Trade; The Silver Question, or the Dollar of the Fathers vs. the Dollar of the Sons; Report of the United States Revenue Commission; Our Merchant Marine: How It Rose, Increased, Became Great, Declined, and Decayed; Relation of Tariff to Wages,* etc. He died in Norwich, Conn., Nov. 5, 1898.



DAVID AMES WELLS.

Wells, Fargo & Co. See Fargo, William George.

Wells, Horace, dentist; born in Hartford, Vt., Jan. 21, 1815; received an academic education, and after learning dentistry began practice in his native city, in 1840; after long seeking a means of preventing pain while extracting teeth, he made several unsuccessful experiments with various substances, and then declared that the only efficient treatment was that of nitrous oxide. It was not, however, until Dec. 11, 1844, that he put this agent into practical use, by having a tooth extracted from his own mouth without feeling pain. He then began to use the gas in extracting teeth from other

persons. He was the author of *A History of the Application of Nitrous-oxide Gas, Ether, and other Vapors to Surgical Operations.* He died in New York City, Jan. 24, 1848. A bronze statue of Dr. Wells has since been erected in Bushnell Park, Hartford, bearing an inscription crediting him with the discovery of anæsthesia, although his claims and those of Drs. Charles T. Jackson, John C. Warren, William T. G. Morton, and Gardiner Q. Colton, formed the cause of a notable controversy.

Wells, JOHN, jurist; born in Cherry Valley, N. Y., in 1770; graduated at Princeton College in 1788; admitted to the bar in 1791; made a justice of the peace in 1797; and won popularity by his skill in replying through the *Evening Post* to an attack upon the Federalists by James Cheetham in an article which appeared in *The American Citizen.* Later he conducted the papers entitled *The Federalist,* though they received a final revision by Alexander Hamilton. He died in Brooklyn, N. Y., Sept. 7, 1823.

Wells, SAMUEL ROBERTS, phrenologist; born in West Hartford, Conn., April 4, 1820; studied medicine, but abandoned its practice for phrenology. He was employed in a publishing house in New York City in 1845, and became sole proprietor in 1865. He was editor of the *Water-cure Journal* in 1850–62—the *Phrenological Journal* from 1863 till his death—and the *Annual of Phrenology and Physiognomy* after 1865; lectured much on phrenology in the United States, Canada, and Great Britain; and was author of *The New Physiognomy, or Signs of Character; How to Read Character,* etc. He died in New York City, April 13, 1875.

Wells, WILLIAM, military officer; born in Kentucky, presumably in 1770; was taken prisoner by the Miami Indians when twelve years old and became the adopted son of Little Turtle, their chief. In 1790, when the Indians became hostile, he deserted them and was made a captain of scouts in Gen. Anthony Wayne's army; was in the United States army till peace was concluded in 1795, when he became an Indian agent and justice of the peace. In 1812, when he learned that the evacuation of Fort Dearborn (now Chicago) was contemplated, he hastened there with thirty friendly Indians for the purpose of forming a body-guard to the people on their way to Fort Wayne, for he felt certain that an attempt would be made to massacre them shortly after leaving the fort. On Aug. 15, the people left the place preceded by Captain Wells and fifteen Indians, the rest of the Miamis bringing up the rear. They had gone little more than a mile when they were attacked by 500 Indians, who indiscriminately butchered soldiers, women, and children. Captain Wells fell with half a dozen bullets in his body, which was afterwards brutally mutilated.

Wells, WILLIAM VINCENT, author; born in Boston, Mass., Jan. 2, 1826; received a common school education; became a sailor, and afterwards an officer in the merchant marine. Later he was engaged in mining and commercial enterprises; removed to California in 1849, where he built and commanded the first steamboat registered in that State; and afterwards was consul-general of Honduras in the United States. He owned and edited several newspapers in San Francisco; and was author of *Walker's Expedition to Nicaragua; A History of the Central American War; Explorations and Adventures in Honduras; Life and Public Services of Samuel Adams* (his great-grandfather), etc.

Wellsville, a city in Columbiana county, O., 20 miles north of Steubenville. About 2 miles below the present city the family of Logan, the great Mingo chieftain, was massacred in 1774. See LOGAN (TA-GA-JUTE).

Welsh, HERBERT, reformer; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Dec. 4, 1851; graduated at the University of Pennsylvania in 1871; was the founder of the Indian Rights' Association, which has done much to promote the welfare of the Indians, and has exposed and defeated numerous schemes to defraud them. He wrote *Four Weeks Among Some of the Sioux Tribes of Dakota and Nebraska in 1882,* etc.

Welsh, JOHN, merchant; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Nov. 9, 1805; received a collegiate education; formed a partnership with his brothers in the West India trade in 1874. During the Civil War he took

an active interest in the measures of relief; was made president of the executive committee of the sanitary commission fair in 1864, through which more than $1,000,000 was raised for army and hospital supplies. In April, 1873, he was elected president of the Centennial board of finance, and by his executive ability largely contributed to the success of the exhibition. In recognition of this service Philadelphia presented him with a gold medal and $50,000, which he gave to the University of Pennsylvania to endow the John Welsh chair of English literature. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., April 10, 1886.

Wendell, Barrett, educator; born in Boston, Mass., Aug. 23, 1855; graduated at Harvard University in 1877; assistant Professor of English there in 1888–98, and Professor since 1898. His publications include *Life of Cotton Mather; Stelligeri and Other Essays Concerning America; A Literary History of America,* etc.

Wentworth, Benning, colonial governor; born in Portsmouth, N. H., July 24, 1696; graduated at Harvard College in 1715; became a merchant, a representative in the Assembly, and in 1734 a councillor; and was governor of New Hampshire in 1741–67. He began making grants of land in the region of Lake Champlain in 1747, and this was the origin of the "New Hampshire Grants." Bennington, Vt., was named in his honor. The land on which the buildings of Dartmouth College were erected (500 acres) was given by Governor Wentworth. The ancient seat of the Wentworths is yet well preserved at Little Harbor, not far from Portsmouth. He died in Portsmouth, N. H., Oct. 14, 1770.

Wentworth, Sir John, colonial governor; born in Portsmouth, N. H., Aug. 9, 1737; nephew of Benning; graduated at Harvard College in 1755. In 1766 he was sent to England as agent of the province, when the Marquis of Rockingham procured his appointment as governor of New Hampshire, which he held in 1767–75. He was also appointed surveyor of the King's woods, which was a lucrative office. On the assumption of all political power by the Provincial Congress of New

BENNING WENTWORTH.

THE WENTWORTH MANSION, LITTLE HARBOR, N. H.

Hampshire, Sir John, the last royal governor, seeing his power depart, and fearing popular indignation, shut himself up in the fort at Portsmouth, and his house was pillaged by a mob. He prorogued the Assembly (July, 1775), retired to Boston, soon afterwards sailed to England, and remained there until 1792, when he was made lieutenant-governor of Nova Scotia. He died in Halifax, N. S., April 8, 1820.

Wentworth, JOHN, journalist; born in Sandwich, N. H., March 5, 1815; graduated at Dartmouth College in 1836; removed to Illinois the same year; was present at the first meeting for the incorporation of Chicago as a city; admitted to the bar in 1841; and member of Congress in 1843–51, and 1853–55. The day after the repeal of the Missouri Compromise was adopted in the House he determined to form an anti-slavery party, and out of his organization sprang the Republican party. He was elected mayor of Chicago in 1857 and re-elected in 1860; and was the first mayor to urge his fellow-citizens to hasten recruiting for the National army. His publications include *Genealogical, Bibliographical, and Biographical Account of the Descendants of Elder William Wentworth,* and *History of the Wentworth Family* (3 volumes). He died in Chicago, Ill., Oct. 16, 1888.

Wentworth, JOHN, lawyer; born in Somersworth, N. H., July 17, 1745; graduated at Harvard College in 1768; was admitted to the bar and began practice in Dover; member of the legislature in 1776–80; was made judge of probate of Strafford county, which office he held till his death; member of the Continental Congress in 1778–79; member of the State council in 1780–84; and of the State Senate in 1784–87. He died in Dover, N. H., Jan 10, 1787.

Wentworth, JOSHUA, soldier; born in Portsmouth, N. H., in 1742. He was colonel of the 1st New Hampshire Regiment in 1776; and, after being elected to the legislature, served as State Senator for four years. He was appointed a delegate to the Continental Congress, although he failed to attend. He died in the town of his birth, Oct. 19, 1809.

Wentworth, TAPPAN, lawyer; born in Dover, N. H., Sept. 24, 1802; admitted to the bar in 1828. In 1851 he served in the legislature as a Whig, and, later, as a Republican. He was elected to Congress, serving from 1853 to 1855. He died in Boston, Mass., June 12, 1895.

Wentworth, WILLIAM, colonist; born in Alford, England, in 1615; accompanied the Rev. John Wheelwright to Massachusetts in 1636 and was associated with him during his troubles with the Massachusetts government owing to his Antinomian beliefs. Later he settled in Dover, N. H., and afterwards preached in the

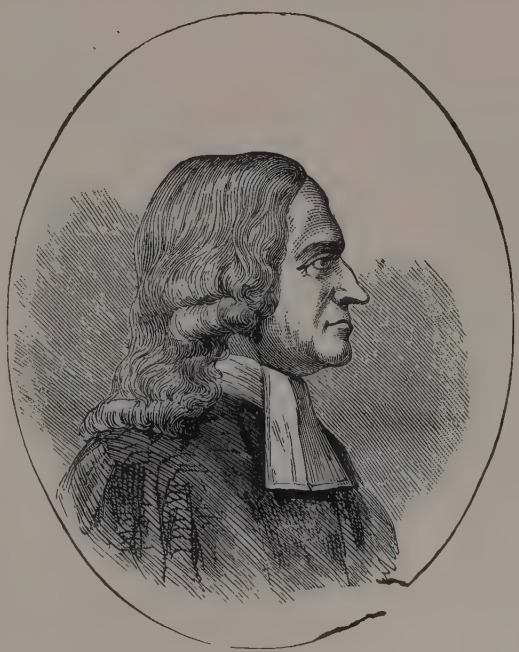
church there. He was instrumental in rescuing a garrison from massacre by the Indians in 1689. It is said that all the Wentworths in the United States are his descendants. He died in Dover, N. H., March 16, 1697.

Werden, REED, naval officer; born in Delaware county, Pa., Feb. 28, 1818; entered the navy as midshipman in 1834 and the Naval School at Philadelphia in 1840, and served in the war against Mexico. At the capture of Roanoke Island he commanded the steamer *Stars and Stripes;* was fleet captain of the East Gulf Squadron in 1864–65; and was promoted commodore in 1871, and rear-admiral in 1875. He died in Newport R. I., July 13, 1886.

Wereat, JOHN, patriot; born about 1730; was an advocate of colonial rights; a member of the Provincial Congress in 1775; its speaker in 1776; and president of the executive council in 1779. He was president of the Georgia convention that ratified the Constitution of the United States; and did much to relieve the sufferings of the people west of Augusta in 1782. He died in Bryan county, Ga., in 1798.

Wernwag, LEWIS, civil engineer; born in Alteburg, Germany, Dec. 4, 1769; settled in Philadelphia in 1786. Not long afterwards he constructed a machine for manufacturing whetstones. He next became a builder of bridges and powermills. In 1809 he laid the keel of the first United States frigate built in the Philadelphia navy-yard; in 1812 he built a wooden bridge across the Schuylkill River at Philadelphia, which became known as the "Colossus of Fairmount" and which was till that time the longest bridge ever constructed, having a single arch with a span of 340 feet. About 1813, when he settled in Phœnixville, Pa., he began experiments for the purpose of utilizing anthracite coal. For a time he found it most difficult to ignite it, but later, by closing the furnace doors and making a draft beneath the coal, he succeeded in producing combustion. Later he invented a stove in which he burned coal in his own home. He died in Harper's Ferry, Va., Aug. 12, 1843.

Wesley, JOHN, founder of the Methodist Church; born in Epworth, Lincolnshire, June 17, 1703; was educated at Oxford University, and ordained deacon in 1725. In 1730 he and his brother Charles, with a few other students, formed a society on principles of greater austerity and methodical religious life than then prevailed in the university. They obtained the name of Methodists, and Wesley became the leader of the association. In 1735 the celebrated Whitefield joined the society, and he and Wesley accompanied Oglethorpe to Georgia to preach the Gospel to the Indians in 1736. Through the arts and falsehoods of two women Charles fell into temporary disgrace. Oglethorpe, satisfied with his explanation, sent him



JOHN WESLEY.

to England as bearer of despatches to the trustees. John remained and became pastor of the church at Savannah. He

was a strict constructionist of the rubrics of the prayer-book, for he had not then begun his labors as the founder of a new sect. His zeal and exactions at length gave offence, and he soon got into other trouble by becoming the lover of a young woman, who, as he suggests in his journal, made pretentions to great piety to entrap him. By the advice of friends he broke the engagement. She immediately married another. Becoming less attentive to her religious duties, Wesley, according to the strict rule he had laid down, after several public reproofs, which she resented, refused to admit her to the Lord's Supper. Her husband, regarding this as an attack upon her religious character, claimed damages to the amount of $5,000. The grand jury found two bills against Wesley, charging him with this and eight other abuses of his ecclesiastical authority, and also of speaking and writing to the woman without her husband's consent. The quarrel grew hot, and finally, by advice of the Moravians, he gave notice of his intention to go to England and lay the matter before the trustees. The magistrates demanded a bond for his appearance to answer to the suit against him. He refused to give it, and they forbade his departure. As soon as evening prayer was over he fled to Charleston, whence he returned to England, and never went back to Georgia. He had stayed six months there, and on his return to England he began itinerant preaching, often in the open air, and attracted many followers. The churches of the Establishment were closed against him, and he had large chapels built in London, Bristol, and other places; he and Whitefield labored in unison in building up Methodism. Differences in doctrine finally separated them, and they labored separately for the same great end. He died in London, March 2, 1791.

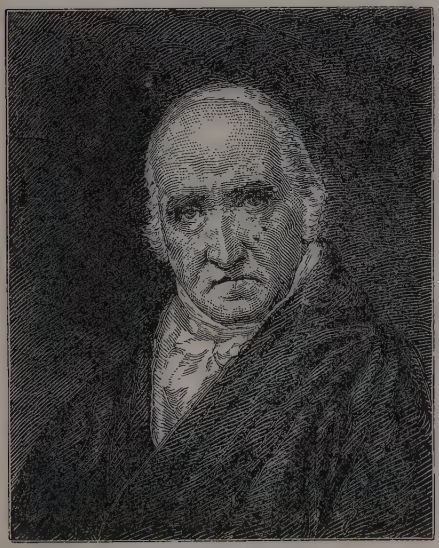
Wesleyan Methodists, the name usually applied to a religious body in the United States, officially known as the WESLEYAN METHODIST CONNECTION OF AMERICA. This sect was formed in 1843 by 6,000 members of the New York State Methodist Episcopal Church, who could not agree with the whole polity and the attitude of that Church towards slavery. In doctrine it is similar to other branches of Methodism. There is a general conference, which is the principal legislative body, and meets every four years. It also had annual conferences. According to the special report of the federal Bureau of the Census on *Religious Bodies* (1910), the denomination had 594 organizations in twenty-two conferences, distributed in twenty States; 20,043 communicants or members; 489 church edifices, and 64 halls used for religious purposes; church property valued at $637,117; 553 ministers; and 505 Sunday-schools, with 3,442 officers and teachers and 21,463 scholars.

Wesleyan University, a co-educational institution in Middletown, Conn.; founded by the Methodist Episcopal Church in 1830; the oldest college of that denomination in the country. Since 1872 it has been open to students of both sexes. It contains the buildings of North and South colleges, Memorial, Rich, and Judd Halls, Observatory Hall, and a gymnasium. The university has grounds and buildings valued at over $900,000; endowment funds, $1,650,000; volumes in the library, 85,000; average number of faculty, 42; average student attendance, 365; number of graduates, over 2,850; ordinary annual income, about $125,000.

Wessels, HENRY WALTON, military officer; born in Litchfield, Conn., Feb. 20, 1809; graduated at West Point in 1833; was engaged in the Seminole War and in the war with Mexico. He became a brigadier-general of volunteers in 1862, serving in the campaign on the Peninsula, and was wounded at Fair Oaks. He distinguished himself by his services on the coast of North Carolina, and was in command of Plymouth in 1863–64, where he was made a prisoner in April, 1864. He was brevetted brigadier-general United States army in 1865; retired Jan. 1, 1871. He died in Dover, Del., Jan. 12, 1889.

West, BENJAMIN, painter; born near Springfield, Pa., Oct. 10, 1738. His parents were Friends. He served as a private soldier under General Forbes for a short time, when, having displayed a decided talent for art, he went to Philadelphia and engaged in portrait-painting. In 1760 he visited Italy, and afterwards remained some time in France. In 1763 he went to England, and there, meeting with much encouragement in his art, made his permanent residence. He be-

came a favorite of King George III., was a member of the Royal Academy at its foundation in 1768, and in 1792 succeeded Sir Joshua Reynolds as its president. In his picture of the *Death of General Wolfe* he first departed from custom, and depicted the characters in proper



BENJAMIN WEST.

costume; and from that time forward there was more realism in historical painting. West received large prices for his paintings. For his *Christ Healing the Sick* the British Institution gave him $15,000. One of his latest works, *Death on the Pale Horse*, is in the Academy of Fine Arts in Philadelphia. He died in London, March 11, 1820.

West, FRANCIS, naval officer; born in England; was commissioned admiral of New England in 1623, with power to restrain such ships as came upon that coast to fish without the consent of the council of Plymouth; but finding the fishermen too stubborn and numerous to be controlled, on his arrival in June, 1623, he sailed to Virginia. This interference with the New England fisheries called forth a petition to Parliament from the owners of the fishing-vessels, and an order was issued that the business should be free. In the spring of 1624 about fifty English fishing-ships appeared on the New England coasts.

West, LIONEL SACKVILLE. See SACKVILLE, BARON LIONEL SACKVILLE SACKVILLE-WEST.

West, NATHANIEL, clergyman; born in Ulster, Ireland, in September, 1794; studied theology; ordained in 1820; and labored for many years as a missionary. He came to the United States in 1834, and held pastorates in Meadville, Northeast, Pittsburg, McKeesport, and Philadelphia, Pa., and in Monroe, Mich. At the beginning of the Civil War he was appointed chaplain of the Satterlee United States General Hospital in Philadelphia, where he served till his death, which took place Sept. 2, 1864. He wrote *The Fugitive Slave-law*, and *History of the United States Army General Hospital, West Philadelphia.*

West, SAMUEL, clergyman; born in Yarmouth, Mass., March 3, 1730; graduated at Harvard College in 1754; settled as a minister over a congregation in New Bedford in 1761; and preached the doctrine that later became known as Unitarianism. He became a chaplain in the American army directly after the battle at Bunker Hill; and interpreted to Washington a treasonable letter written by Dr. Benjamin Church to a British army officer. He was a delegate to the constitutional convention of Massachusetts, and also to the convention which adopted the national Constitution. He published *A Sermon on the Landing of the Pilgrims.* He died in Tiverton, R. I., Sept. 24, 1807.

West India Company. See DUTCH WEST INDIA COMPANY.

West Indies, islands discovered by Columbus; form a long archipelago reaching from Florida and Yucatan to the shores of Venezuela, South America, separating the open Atlantic from the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea. Three great divisions are recognized in this archipelago:

I. Greater Antilles: Cuba, Haiti, Porto Rica, and Jamaica.

II Bahamas: Extending from about lat. 20° to 27° N., forming a British colonial possession, few inhabited; Nassau, on Providence Island, the capital. They form a barrier which throws the Gulf Stream upon the Atlantic coast of the United States, thus greatly modifying the climate of the Eastern United States and Northern Europe.

Omitting the insignificant islets the Lesser Antilles are:

		Names.	Possessors.
III. Lesser Antilles.	Leeward Isles.	Virgin Islands	British, Danish, Spanish.
		Anguilla	British.
		St. Christopher (St. Kitt's)	"
		St. Martin	French, Dutch.
		St. Bartholomew	French.
		Saba	Dutch.
		St. Eustatius	"
		Nevis	British.
		Barbuda	"
		Antigua	"
		Montserrat	"
		Guadeloupe	French.
		Marie-Galante	"
		Dominica	British.
	Windward Isles.	Martinique	French.
		St. Lucia	British.
		St. Vincent	"
		Grenada	"
		Barbados	"
		Tobago	"
		Trinidad	"
		Oruba	Dutch.
		Curaçoa	"
		Buen Ayre	"
		Aves (Bird) Islands	Venezuela.
		Los Roques	
		Orchilla	
		Blanquella	

See CUBA; MARTINIQUE; PORTO RICO.

West Indies, DANISH. See DANISH WEST INDIES.

West New Jersey. Up to 1674 New Jersey remained an undivided province, but the term West New Jersey was employed to designate the settlements on the Delaware, although these settlements were represented in the Assembly which met in Elizabethtown in October, 1668. They were not called upon to pay quit-rents, and they did not share in the uprising against Carteret. In 1647 Berkeley sold his share of the province for £1,000 to Byllynge. See NEW JERSEY.

West Point (VA.). Generals Franklin and Sedgwick with several gunboats landed a force at this point, May 1, 1862, which was attacked and defeated by the Confederates under Generals Whiting and Wade Hampton. The Confederates in turn were compelled to retreat by the fire from the gunboats.

West Point Military Academy. See MILITARY ACADEMY, UNITED STATES.

WEST VIRGINIA

West Virginia (named from its geographical relation to Virginia), a State in the South Atlantic Division of the North American Union; bounded on the n. and n.e. by Pennsylvania and Maryland, s.e. and s. by Virginia, and w. by Ohio and Kentucky; area, 24,170 square miles, of which 148 are water surface; extreme breadth, e. to w., 200 miles; extreme length, n. to s., 225 miles; number of counties, 55; capital, Charleston; popular name, "the Pan-handle State"; State mottoes, *Montani semper liber*, "Mountaineers are always free men," and *Libertas et fidelitas*, "Liberty and fidelity"; admitted into the Union as the thirty-fifth State, June 20, 1863; population (1910), 1,221,119.

General Statistics.—West Virginia is noted for the value of its mineral productions and the extent of its manufactures. In its record year in the former (1907) it ranked second among the States and Territories in the output of coke and natural gas and third in coal, petroleum, and pottery products. The total output was valued at $92,487,960, of which coal represented $47,846,630; natural gas, $16,670,962; petroleum, $15,852,428; and pig-iron, $6,454,000. Manufacturing is promoted by the advantages of an abundance of cheap and excellent fuel, by exceptional water-power, and by superior facilities of transportation. There are over 2,580 factory-system establishments, employing $150,923,000 capital and 63,893 wage-earners, paying $38,710,000 for salaries and wages and $92,878,000 for materials, and having products valued at $161,960,000. These figures show an increase in ten years, in establishments, from 1,824; capital, from $49,103,138; wage-earners, from 33,080; salaries and wages, from $14,159,146; cost of materials, from $37,228,253; and value of products, from $67,006,822. The principal outputs are lumber in its various forms, iron and steel, flour and grist, leather, glass, coke, steam-railroad cars, foundry and machine-shop work, and malt liquors. The internal revenue collections on taxable manufactures exceed $1,593,800 in a single year.

Agricultural interests are indicated by over 95,870 farms, containing 5,482,000 improved acres, representing in

lands, buildings, and implements a value of over $269,420,000, an increase in the value of lands and buildings of 56 per cent. in ten years. Ordinary farm crops have an annual value exceeding $40,000,000, corn ($16,266,000), forage ($12,150,000), and wheat ($5,228,000) leading. Domestic animals, poultry, and bees have a value of over $43,000,000, an increase of 41 per cent. in ten years, horses, cattle, sheep, poultry, and mules leading in the order given.

General business interests are served by 103 national banks, having $9,081,825 capital and resources of $70,211,224; 166 State banks, with $9,533,842 capital and $67,888,562 resources; five loan and trust companies, with $957,800 capital and $4,272,917 resources; and seven stock savings banks, with $311,600 capital and $3,393,176 resources. The exchanges at

STATE SEAL OF WEST VIRGINIA.

the clearing-house at Wheeling have exceeded $90,263,000 in a single year.

Religious interests are promoted by 4,042 organizations of white congregations, reporting 3,248 church edifices, 301,565 communicants or members, 212,577 Sunday-school scholars, and church property valued at $9,733,585, the strongest denominations numerically being Methodist, Baptist, Roman Catholic, United Brethren, Presbyterian, Disciples, and Lutheran; and by 1,390 organizations of colored congregations, reporting 200 church edifices and fifty-eight halls, 14,949 communicants, and church property valued at $496,946, the strongest denominations being the National Convention of Colored Baptists, Methodist, African Methodist, and Free Baptist. The Protestant Episcopal Church has bishops at Parkersburg and Charlestown, and the Roman Catholic, one at Wheeling.

The school age is 6-21; enrollment in the public schools, white, 265,203; colored, 11,130; average daily attendance, white, 185,564; colored, 7,789; value of public-school property, $8,489,166; total revenue, $4,232,569; total expenditure, $4,287,606. Institutions for higher education include the University of West Virginia, at Charlestown; West Virginia Wesleyan University (M.E.), Buckhannon; Bethany College (Christ.), Bethany; Davis and Elkins College (Pres.), Elkins; Powhattan College for Women (non-sect.), Charlestown; State normal schools at Athens, Fairmont, Glenville, Huntington, Institute Station, Shepherdstown, and West Liberty; Storer College, Harper's Ferry; and West Virginia Institute, Institute Station, both for colored students; and sixty-seven public high schools. The State maintains an industrial school for boys at Grafton and one for girls at Industrial Station, and schools for the blind and deaf at Romney.

Government.—The western counties of Virginia declared for the Union, April 21, 1861. In June following, a convention at Wheeling adopted a declaration of rights and an ordinance to reorganize the State government, and elected Francis H. Pierpont governor. Another convention at the same place passed an ordinance to form a new State in western Virginia to be called Kanawha, in 1862, and this action was ratified by popular vote, and was speedily followed by the formal assent of the general assembly of the reorganized Virginia to the creation of a new State, to be called, however, West Virginia. With the completion of the necessary formalities, West Virginia was admitted into the Union as a separate State in 1863.

The State constitution was amended in 1866, so as to exclude from citizenship all persons who had voluntarily given aid to the Southern Confederacy subsequent to June, 1861, and another amendment, ratified in 1871, rehabilitated citizens previously disfranchised. The legislature

ratified the Fourteenth Amendment to the federal Constitution in 1867, and the Fifteenth in 1869. In 1872 a new constitution was ratified by popular vote, and in 1877 Charleston was made the permanent capital, from May 1, 1885, in a special popular election.

The executive authority is vested in a governor (annual salary, $5,000), secretary of state, treasurer, auditor, attorney-general, adjutant-general, superintendent of schools, and commissioner of agriculture — official terms, four years. The legislature consists of a senate of thirty members and a house of representatives of eighty-six members—terms of senators, four years; of representatives, two years; salary of each, $4 per diem; sessions, biennial; limit, forty-five days, but may be extended by a two-thirds vote of all members. The chief judicial authority is a Supreme Court of Appeals, comprising a president and four associate justices. In 1911 the State was free of debt; the various State funds held $1,998,507; the assessed valuation (for 1910) was $1,119,828,173; and the tax rate for all purposes was forty-five cents per $1,000. In 1911 the United States Supreme Court decided the State to be liable for $7,182,507 on account of the old Virginia State debt (see VIRGINIA).

STATE GOVERNORS.

Arthur I. Boreman	inaugurated	1863
William E. Stevenson	"	1869
John J. Jacob	"	1871
Henry M. Matthews	"	1877
Jacob B. Jackson	"	1881
E. Willis Wilson	"	1885
A. B. Fleming	"	1890
William A. MacCorkle	"	1893
George W. Atkinson	"	1897
Albert V. White	"	1901
W. M. O. Dawson	"	1905
William E. Glasscock	"	1909

West Virginia ranked twenty-seventh in population among the States and Territories under the census of 1870; twenty-ninth in 1880; and twenty-eighth in 1890, 1900, and 1910.

In the apportionment of representation in Congress, West Virginia was given three members under the census of 1870; four in 1880 and 1890; five in 1900; and six in 1910.

UNITED STATES SENATORS.

Name.	No. of Cong.	Term.
Waitman T. Willey	38th to 42d	1863 to 1871
Peter G. Van Winkle	38th " 41st	1863 " 1869
Arthur I. Boreman	41st " 44th	1869 " 1875
Henry G. Davis	42d " 48th	1871 " 1883
Allen T. Caperton	44th	1875 " 1876
Samuel Price	44th	1876
Frank Hereford	44th to 47th	1877 to 1881
Johnson N. Camden	47th " 50th	1881 " 1887
John E. Kenna	48th " 52d	1883 " 1893
Charles E. Faulkner	50th " 56th	1887 " 1899
Johnson N. Camden	53d " 54th	1893 " 1895
Stephen B. Elkins	54th " 62d	1895 " 1911
Nathan B. Scott	56th " 62d	1899 " 1911
Clarence Watson	62d " ——	1911 " ——
William E. Chilton	62d " ——	1911 " ——

History.—The early history of West Virginia is identical with that of its parent stock, Virginia, and its political activities immediately preceding and after Statehood have been outlined under *Government.* Later events include coal-miners' strikes in 1897 and 1902, and the settlement of the Maryland-West Virginia boundary dispute by a commission of the United States Supreme Court in 1911. This commission was appointed in 1907 to pass upon a controversy that had been waged for more than 200 years, involving about thirty-six square miles of land and the citizenship of several thousand people. The commission sustained all of West Virginia's contentions.

Westcott, THOMPSON, editor; born in Philadelphia, Pa., June 5, 1820; educated in Pennsylvania; admitted to the bar in 1841; was a law reporter on the *Public Ledger* in 1846–51; editor of the *Sunday Despatch* in 1848–84; editor-in-chief of the *Inquirer in* 1863–69; and became editor of the Philadelphia *Record* in 1884. He has contributed articles to periodicals, and written *Life of John Fitch, the Inventor of the Steamboat; The Tax-payer's Guide; The Chronicles of the Great Rebellion against the United States of America; Historic Mansions and Buildings of Philadelphia,* etc. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., May 8, 1888.

Western Company, THE. John Law formed a company under the sanction of the regent of France (August, 1717), and it was called the Western Company. The grants made to it were for twenty-five years, and the sovereignty of all Louisiana

—an undefined region—was given to the company. The sole conditions were homage to the French monarch and a gold crown at the beginning of every reign. With a capital of 40,000,000 livres, Law and his associates entered upon a great scheme of commerce and colonization. Armed vessels bearing troops and colonists were soon seen upon the ocean. Law appointed Bienville governor of the domain, and he selected the site of New Orleans for its capital, where, in February, 1718, he left fifty persons to clear the ground and to build. Great prosperity was promised. The shares of the company rose in value, and in May, 1719, Law obtained from the regent power to join with it the French East India Company, having the exclusive right of trading beyond the Cape of Good Hope. Then the name of the association was changed to "The Indian Company," and it was authorized to issue 50,000 new shares. It made concessions of land to private adventurers under the control of the company, and these sent out settlers.

New establishments for trade were opened on the Mississippi, the Red, and the Missouri rivers, and these plantations proved to be permanent ones. Success caused Law to venture upon the gigantic scheme of paying off a large portion of the public debt of France through the operations of the company. It was proposed to take up, by the issue of company stock, government stock to the amount of 1,500,000,000 livres, in exchange for the privilege of collecting the revenues of the kingdom. The new shares were sought for by the French people with such avidity that 300,000 new shares were applied for when there were but 50,000 to distribute. The enlargement of currency and universal confidence in Law made every form of industry prosperous. But the attempt of a company of directors in Paris to manage a colony in America, the dishonesty of agents, the reliance for profit on mines that were never found and upon tobacco that was never cultivated, together with the wild spirit of speculation that convulsed all France and made it a nation of lunatics, soon brought the operations of the company to an end. Shares had risen from the par value of 500 livres to 5,000 livres. When the purchasers at the latter rate began to buy something else besides shares the bonds quickly fell. Depreciation was rapid, and wide-spread ruin was the consequence. See LAW, JOHN.

Western Lands. There was a "lion in the way" of the ratification of the Articles of Confederation—namely, the vexed question of the Western lands, within vague or undefined boundaries of States. The boundaries of New Hampshire, Rhode Island, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Maryland—six of the thirteen—had boundaries exactly defined. These were "non-claimant States." Massachusetts, Connecticut, Virginia, and the Carolinas extended, under their charters, to the Pacific Ocean, or to the Mississippi River since that had been established (1763) as the western boundary of British possessions in America. Georgia also claimed jurisdiction to the Mississippi; so, also, did New York, under color of certain alleged acknowledgments of her jurisdiction made during colonial times by the Six Nations, the conquerors, it was pretended, of the whole Western country between and including the Great Lakes and the Cumberland Mountains below the Ohio River. These were "claimant States." As all that vast territory was to be wrested from Great Britain by joint efforts, it was claimed that it ought to be joint property. The "claimant States" expected great revenues from these Western lands that would pay their debts, and they strenuously adhered to their rights; while the landless, or "non-claimant, States," regarded with jealousy the prospect of the overflowing treasuries of their neighbors. The claimant States secured the insertion of a provision in the Articles of Confederation that no State should be deprived of territory for the benefit of the United States. All the non-claimant States excepting Maryland reluctantly consented to this provision; the latter steadily refused to sign the articles while that provision was retained.

New York led the way towards reconciliation by giving a discretionary power to her delegates in Congress (February, 1780), to cede to the Union that portion of her claim west of a north and south line drawn through the western extremity of Lake Ontario. The other claimant

States were urged by the Congress to follow this example, under a guarantee (Sept. 6, 1780) that the lands so ceded should be disposed of for the common benefit, and, as they became peopled, should be formed into republican States to be admitted into the Union as peers of the others. Connecticut offered (Oct. 10, 1780) to cede her claims to the region west of Pennsylvania, excepting a broad tract south of Lake Erie, immediately adjoining Pennsylvania. This was afterwards known as the Connecticut Reserve. Virginia ceded to the United States (Dec. 31, 1780) all claim to the territory northwest of the Ohio, provided that State should be guaranteed the right to the remaining territory east of the Mississippi and north of lat. 30° 30′ N. The New York delegates executed a deed to the United States (March 1, 1781) of the territory west of the line before mentioned; and on the same day the delegates from Maryland, authorized by the Assembly immediately after the Virginia cession, signed the Articles of Confederation. This completed the ratification of that fundamental law of the Union, and henceforth it was the supreme constitution until superseded by another and a better one.

Western Reserve, The. See Garfield, James Abram.

Western Territory, The. In 1784 Congress provided a temporary government for the country ceded by the several States and the Indians "beyond the mountains." Such territory was to be divided into distinct States; the inhabitants of any such division might be authorized to hold a convention of "their free males of full age" for the purpose of establishing a temporary government, and to adopt the constitution and laws of any State already established, and, under certain restrictions, to make political divisions in the newly organized territory into counties and townships. These were to be preliminary movements. It was provided that when any such State had acquired 20,000 inhabitants, the latter, on giving due proof thereof to Congress, should receive authority from that body to call a convention of representatives to establish a permanent government for themselves on the following basis: First, that they should forever remain a part of the Confederation of the United States of America; second, that they should be subject to the Articles of Confederation equally with those of the original States; third, that they should in no case interfere with the rights of the United States to the soil of such States, nor with the ordinances and regulations which Congress might find necessary for securing the title of such soil to *bona fide* purchasers; fourth, that they should be subject to pay a part of the national debt contracted or to be contracted; fifth, that no tax should be imposed on lands belonging to the United States; sixth, that these respective governments should be republican in form; and, seventh, that the lands of non-resident proprietors should in no case be taxed higher than that of the residents within any new State. It was also provided that whenever any of the new States should have as many free inhabitants as the least populous of the thirteen original States, it should be admitted into Congress by delegates on an equal footing with the original States, provided the requisite number of the States forming the Union should consent to such admission.

Westinghouse, George, inventor; born in Central Bridge, N. Y., Oct. 6, 1846; settled in Schenectady in 1856; received a high school education; served in the National army in 1863–65. After the war he engaged in the manufacture of machinery under his various patents. His inventions include a rotary engine; several devices in railway signals; electric machinery; the Westinghouse air-brake, etc. He died March 12, 1914.

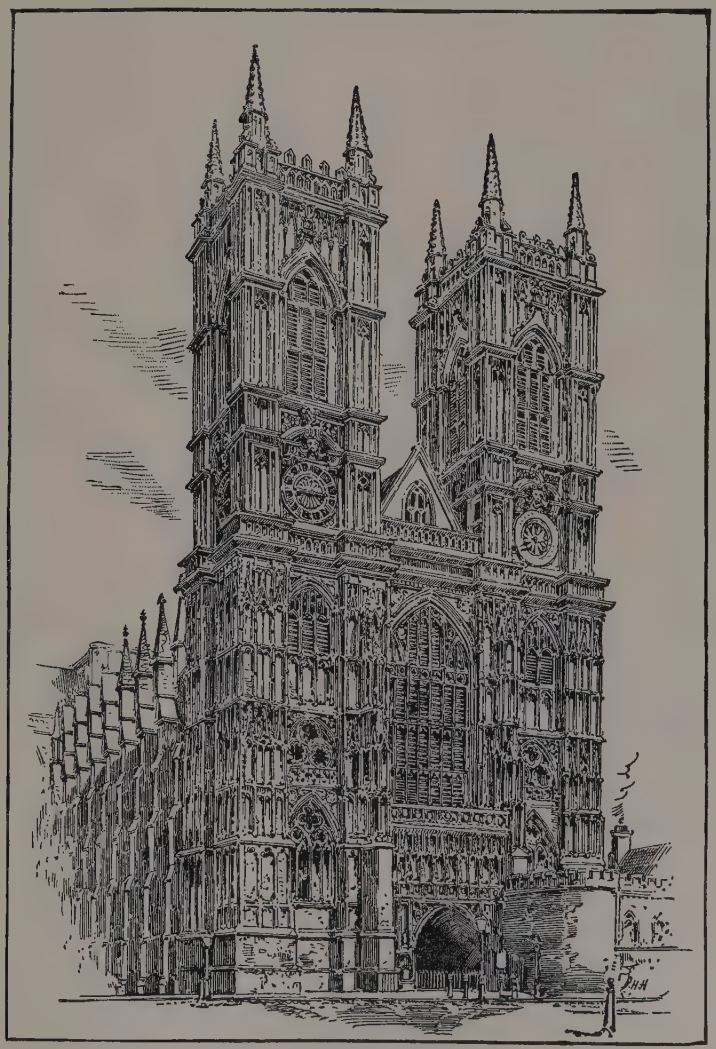
WESTMINSTER ABBEY

Westminster Abbey. Founded by Edward the Confessor when released from his vow to make a pilgrimage to the grave of St. Peter at Rome. It was built on the site of an older church, and was the first cruciform church erected in England. In it the sovereigns of Great Britain were crowned from the time of Edward the Confessor to the present, and many of them are buried there.

The present church is mainly the work of Henry III. (1220–69) and Henry VII., who laid the corner-stone of the chapel which bears his name, Jan. 24, 1502. The western towers were rebuilt by George I. and George II.

Archdeacon of Westminster (later, Dean of Canterbury): _____

Westminster Abbey is most frequently entered by the great northern door, usually known as Solomon's Porch. I will,



WESTMINSTER ABBEY.

The Share of America in Westminster Abbey.—The following article was written by the Venerable F. W. Farrar, D.D., however, ask the courteous American visitor to walk through St. Margaret's church-yard, and round the western

façade of the Abbey, and to enter by the doors under Sir Christopher Wren's towers. Pass through the western door, and pause for a moment

> "Where bubbles burst, and folly's dancing foam
> Melts if it cross the threshold."

Of all the glory of this symbolic architecture, of the awe-inspiring grandeur and beauty of this great minster, which makes us feel at once that

> "They dreamt not of a perishable home
> Who thus could build,"

how much may be claimed in part by America?

In one sense *all* of it which belongs to the epoch which elapsed between the age of Edward the Confessor and the disastrous days of Charles I. and Archbishop Laud. An English writer who lives in America has said that "in signing away his own empire George III. did not sign away the empire of English liberty, of English law, of English literature, of English blood, of English religion, or of the English tongue." Americans enjoy, no less than we, the benefit of the great charter, the petition of right, the *habeas corpus* act. They need not go back for their history to Indian annals or Icelandic sagas. Theirs are the palaces of the Plantagenets, the cathedrals which enshrine our old religion, the illustrious hall in which the long line of our great judges reared by their decisions the fabric of our law, the gray colleges in which our intellect and science found their earliest home, the graves where our heroes and sages and poets sleep. Indeed, I have understated their share in the abbey. It reaches down not only to the days of the Pilgrim Fathers, but to the War of Independence. Chatham and Burke and Barré as well as Patrick Henry advocated the American cause, which engaged the sympathy of the great mass of Englishmen, if not that of Grenville and North.

We shall not have far to walk before we find those memorials of the abbey which belong to America in some special and distinctive way, and it is to those that I shall closely confine myself. On entering the western door you will see immediately to your right the huge monument reared by the nation to the memory of Captain Cornewell, who perished nobly in the sea-fight off Toulon in 1742. A passage recently cut through the Sicilian marble pediment of this block of sculpture admits you into the baptistery, which stands under the southwest tower. There you will see the seat in which the judges sat when the baptistery was used as a consistory court, the tomb of Craggs, with its poor epitaph by Pope, and the beautiful memorials of Wordsworth, Keble, Maurice, and Kingsley. An American may well look with peculiar interest on the fine bust of Kingsley, for his lecture on the abbey was delivered to many thousands of Americans in their great cities. But there are two other memorials which combine with these to give to this spot in the abbey the name of "Little Poets' Corner." They are the stained-glass windows in memory of George Herbert and William Cowper. They belong entirely to America, for they are the gift of an American citizen, my honored friend, Mr. George W. Childs, of Philadelphia. In the stained glass are the effigies of the two poets. Both of them were Westminster boys, and the most beautiful representatives of all that is holy in two very opposite schools of religious thought. It was a happy inspiration which suggested the erection of this window. George Herbert and William Cowper were well deserving of memorials in the abbey, apart from the fact that they had so often played in its cloisters and worshipped in its choir. The combination of the two suggests the higher unity which reconciles all minor points of ecclesiastical difference.

Leaving the baptistery, and walking to the third pillar of the nave on the north side, the visitor will see opposite to the pillar a slab in the floor which covers an empty grave. In this respect the slab is unique. It marks the spot where lay, for a few days only, the mortal remains of the generous American citizen, George Peabody. The name of Mr. Peabody will be remembered for centuries to come in England, because it is perpetuated by the buildings for the residence of the poor which are due to his great bequest. It will be brought into yet more constant remembrance by this his temporary grave.

"His first American ancestor," says Colonel Chester, "emigrated from Hertfordshire as a husbandman in 1635." With singular felicity Dean Stanley chose from Mr. Peabody's own diary a sentence to carve upon his tomb. It is, "I have prayed my Heavenly Father day by day that I might be enabled before I died to show my gratitude for the blessings which He has bestowed upon me by doing some great good to my fellow-men."

Sentences like these have something more than a biographic interest. They are as morally instructive as those carved for the benefit of citizens on the Athenian *Hermai*. They are scarcely to be found on any tombs before the late dean's time, and they form a brilliant contrast to the dull, vain, and exuberant verbosity which makes so many of the epitaphs absolutely unreadable.

Now cross with me to the fourth pillar on the south side, and you will see on the wall above you a cenotaph of pathetic interest. It is the only one raised by one of the United States of America, and it was placed here in honor of an English officer. It is the memorial erected by an order of "the Great and General Court of the Province of Massachusetts Bay," Feb. 1, 1759, "To Lord Viscount Howe, Brigadier-General of his Majesty's forces in North America, who was slain July 6, 1758, on the march of Ticonderoga, in the thirty-fourth year of his age; in testimony of the sense they had of his services and military virtues, and of the affection their officers and soldiers bore to his command." The figure which mourns over the hero's trophies and armorial bearings represents the genius of Massachusetts Bay. The sum voted by the province for the monument was £250. Howe was the idol of his soldiers, in all of whose hardships he shared. Among other anecdotes of him we are told that he cut his hair short like his men. He is buried at Albany, and many years after his interment, when his coffin was opened—alas! there are few of the great dead whose remains have escaped this desecration—it was found that after death his locks had grown to beautiful luxuriance.

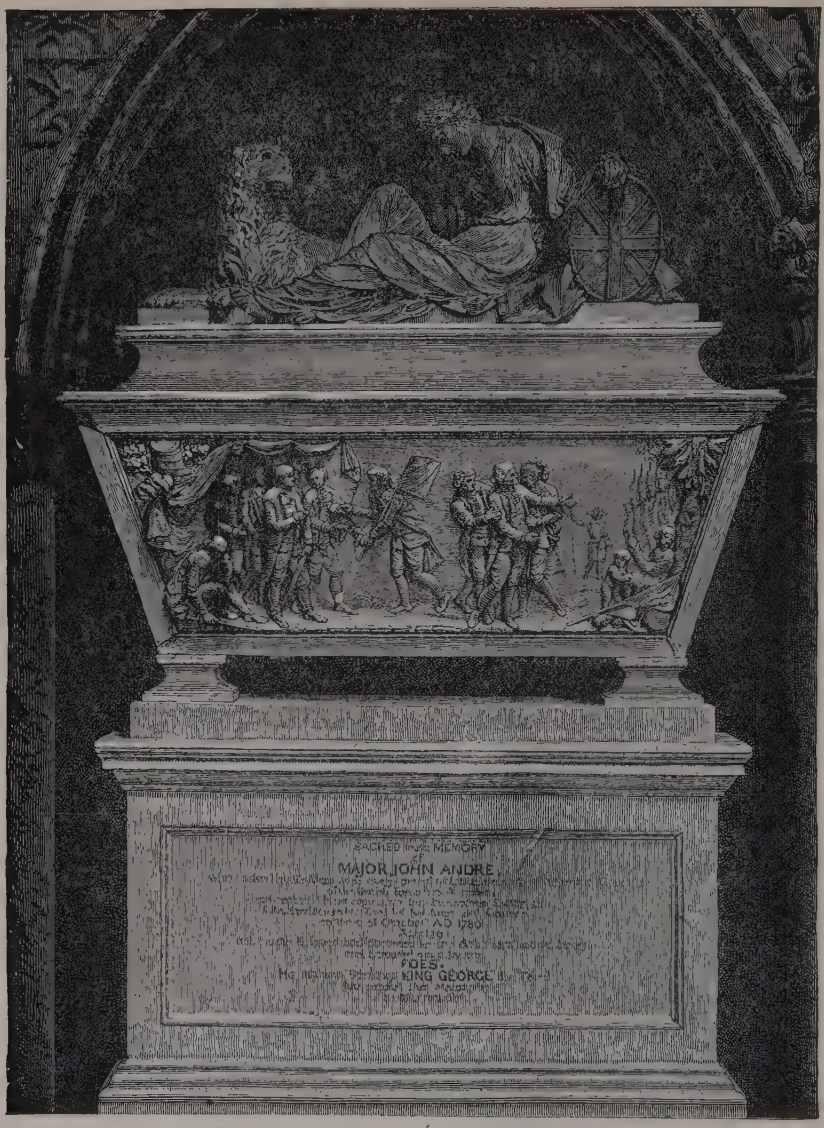
Advance to the third pillar beyond this, and on the wall you will again see a tomb which bears the ill-fated name of Ticonderoga. It is the tomb of Col. Roger Townshend, killed by a cannon-ball while reconnoitring the French lines on July 25, 1759. He was only twenty-eight, and is represented on the bas-relief surrounded by his officers as he lay in the agonies of death. Americans will look with interest on the fine figures of the two red Indians who support the sarcophagus. These are the only Indians represented in the abbey, although there are tomahawks and Indian ornaments on the tomb of Wolfe.

Of the War of Independence there are but three memorials, all full of pathos.

In the north cloister in a nameless grave lies Gen. Sir John Burgoyne, who died on Aug. 4, 1793, at the age of seventy, sixteen years after he had surrendered and resigned his sword to General Gates at Saratoga in 1777. It is strange that there should be no monument, not even an inscription, to mark the spot where lie the remains of a man whose defeat sent such a thrill through the heart of England and America as has never been equalled in modern times.

Passing by for one moment the tomb of André, to which we shall return, notice on the wall of the choir, south aisle, the little, unpretending tablet to William Wragg. He was a lawyer of South Carolina, who, when the American colonies revolted from Great Britain, "inflexibly maintained his loyalty to the person and government of his sovereign," and was therefore compelled to leave his distressed family and ample fortune, and to fly from the States in the very year of Burgoyne's surrender. His ship was lost on the coast of Holland. The bas-relief represents the shipwreck in which he perished, and the escape of his son, who, with the faithful aid of a black slave, clung to a floating package, and was cast alive upon the shore.

The most interesting memorial of the war is undoubtedly the famous tomb of Maj. John André. The circumstances which brought about the death of that brave, bright, and unfortunate young officer are narrated with such ample detail in all American histories, and the whole story of the treason of Benedict Arnold and the arrest of André is so familiar that I need not dwell upon them. His one



MONUMENT TO MAJOR ANDRÉ, WESTMINSTER ABBEY

desire was that he should not be regarded as a spy, and that he should be shot as a soldier, not hung as a felon. But Provost-Marshal Cunningham had hung Capt. Nathan Hale, and hence André pleaded in vain in his letter to Washington that he had agreed to meet "a person" (Arnold or his agent) "who was to give him intelligence *upon ground not within the posts of either army.*" "Against my stipulation," he said, "my intention, and without my knowledge, I was conducted within one of your posts." "Surely," he said to Major Tallmadge, "you do not consider Hale's case and mine alike." "Yes," replied the American major, "pre-

cisely similar, and similar will be your fate." How much he won the sympathy and affection of his captors by his frankness and courage; how Washington thought him "more unfortunate than guilty," and with his own hands closed the shutters of his room from which the gibbet at Tappan was visible; how until the last fatal moment he was kept in merciful ignorance that he was not to die a soldier's death; how bravely he met his miserable fate; how he was buried under the gallows, and a peach-tree planted on the spot; how, forty years later, at the request of the Duke of York, his remains were disinterred and sent to England; how it was found that the peach-tree had twined its roots among his hair; how the funeral service was read over his remains on Nov. 28, 1821, in the abbey, by Dean Ireland, and this monument erected to his memory by George III.—are facts known to all. The Americans have treated his memory with generosity. They wept at his death; they sent home his remains with every circumstance of honor. Mr. Cyrus Field has erected a handsome monument which will mark for future generations the historic spot where he was executed.

On the top of the sarcophagus sits Britannia, mourning, beside her lion. The bas-relief represents Washington in his tent, surrounded by his officers, one of whom sits on the ground weeping. An officer bearing a letter in his hand is approaching with a flag of truce. On the right is the fine figure of André, with a platoon of soldiers drawn up in front of him under their officer. At one side is the tree which formed his gibbet.

It is usually said that the letter in the hand of the officer is meant to be the letter which André wrote to Washington entreating that he might not die a felon's death. The touching original—which has been paraphrased in verse by N. P. Willis—is at Charlottesville, Virginia. No flag of truce, however, could have been needed for the conveyance of this letter, which André simply sent from the cottage in which he was a prisoner. The flag of truce was only used by General Robertson, whom Sir Henry Clinton sent with two others to lay before Washington the proofs of André's innocence. The interview was not with Washington at all, but with General Greene, whom Washington deputed to act in his behalf. We can only suppose that the designer, Adam, and the sculptor, Van Geldert, were either imperfectly acquainted with the real facts, or have allowed themselves the poetic license of their art.

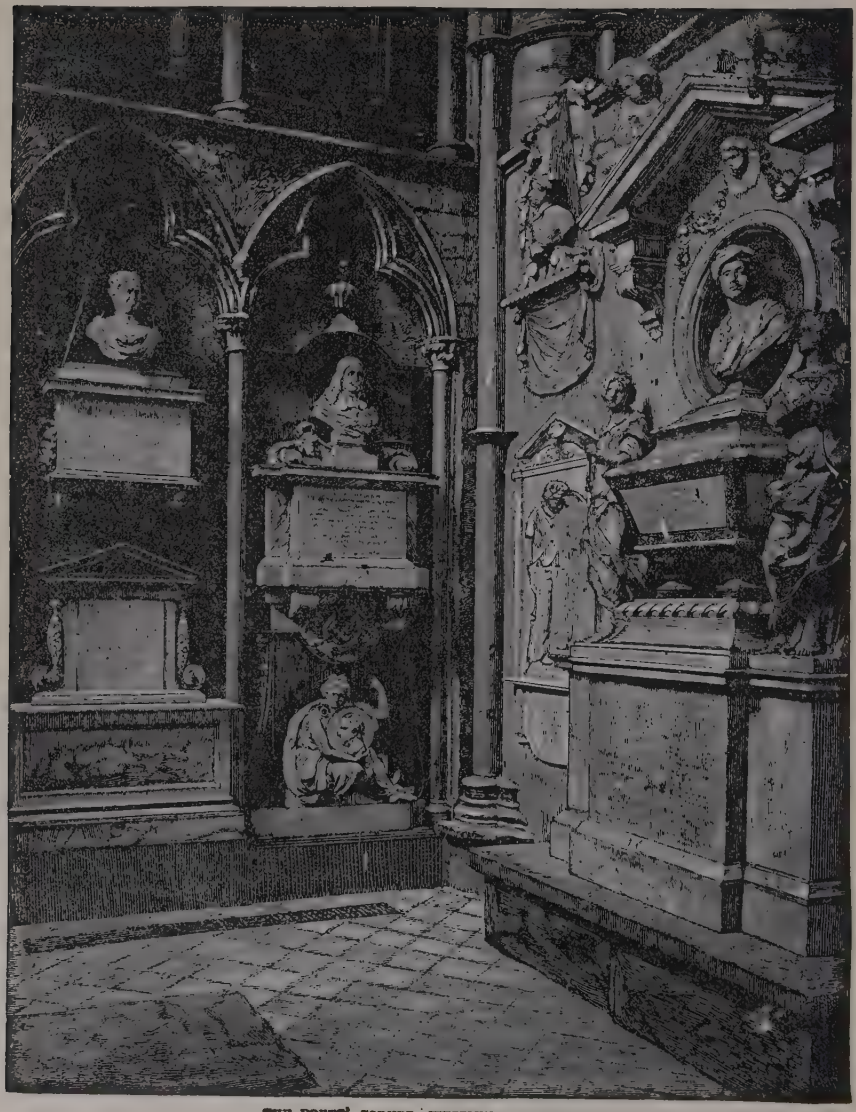
The heads of Washington and André have several times been knocked off and carried away by nefarious relic-seekers. It is hard to conceive the feelings which could permit such a vulgar mixture of sacrilege and theft. It has been sometimes supposed that this was done in old days by mischievous Westminster boys, with no loftier object than to find something conveniently round with which to play hockey in the cloisters. Charles Lamb, writing to Southey, said that "perhaps it was the mischief of some school-boy fired with some raw notions of transatlantic freedom. The mischief was done about the time that you were a scholar there. Do you know anything about the unfortunate relic?" The passage was a mere jest, but Southey so much disliked any allusion to the "*Pantisocracy*" dreams of his earlier days that he remained seriously offended with Lamb for years. I do not believe myself that Westminster boys could ever have been such Philistines as to deface the beautiful works of art which are consecrated by the memories of the dead. The beauty and historic interest of the heads must have tempted the senseless and unscrupulous greed of mere relic-mongers.

Over André's tomb, fastened to the wall, is a wreath of autumn leaves brought by Dean Stanley from Tappan, and by him placed here. He also hung on the monument a little silver medal commemorative of André's fate, which was given him by Mr. Field; but that was stolen.

Leaving the tomb of the ill-fated officer, our American friend must not omit to notice on the same wall, a little farther on, a modest tablet to an American citizen, Col. J. L. Chester, who, with rare munificence and rare devotion of labor, has edited in a handsome volume *The Marriage, Baptismal, and Burial Register of the Abbey.* The work could only have been accomplished by an archæologist fired with intense devotion to his art. In this work, which cost him years of effort,

and hundreds of pounds of expense, which he could never hope to see repaid, Colonel Chester has stored a mass of the most curious and unattainable information. The only way in which the dean and chapter could recognize the great and unselfish services of an American to their cathedral was by giving his memorial tablet a place among those of so many of the great and good with whose genealogies he had long been occupied. Happily, there is no reward which he would have valued more highly.

A little farther on, also on the wall of the south choir aisle, is the exquisite cenotaph erected by the tolerant catholicity of Dean Stanley in honor of John and Charles Wesley. I need hardly tell



THE POETS' CORNER, WESTMINSTER ABBEY.

an American that both of them belong, by the evangelistic labor of their lives, to America as well as to England. It is true that they went there young and untried, and that neither the work of Charles at Frederica nor of John at Savannah was marked by the wisdom and meekness of their later lives. Still, it counts for something in the history of America that the founders of the greatest religious movement of the last century preached also in the New World, and that Whitefield, who succeeded John at Savannah, made many voyages to Georgia, and now lies in his peaceful grave at Newburyport.

A few steps farther will take you into the south transept, and there, in Poets' Corner, among the many busts, tombs, and statues of great authors, there are some in which Americans may claim an immediate interest. Dickens and Thackeray, whose memorials are not far from the statue of Addison, were knowr to thousands in the United States by their readings and lectures. The bust of Coleridge—who has hitherto been uncommemorated in the abbey, and for some memorial of whose greatness Queen Emma of Hawaii asked in vain when she visited Westminster—is the work of an American artist and the gift of an American citizen; and the American poet and minister, Mr. J. R. Lowell, pronounced the oration when the bust was unveiled. Here, too, is the statue of Campbell, who found the subject of one of his longest poems

"On Susquehanna's side, fair Wyoming,"

and immortalized—though with many errors—the historic massacre. The white bust of Longfellow belongs to America alone. He did not attain—he would have been the last to claim for himself—the highest rank in the band of poets. He placed himself, and rightly, below the grand old masters, the bards sublime

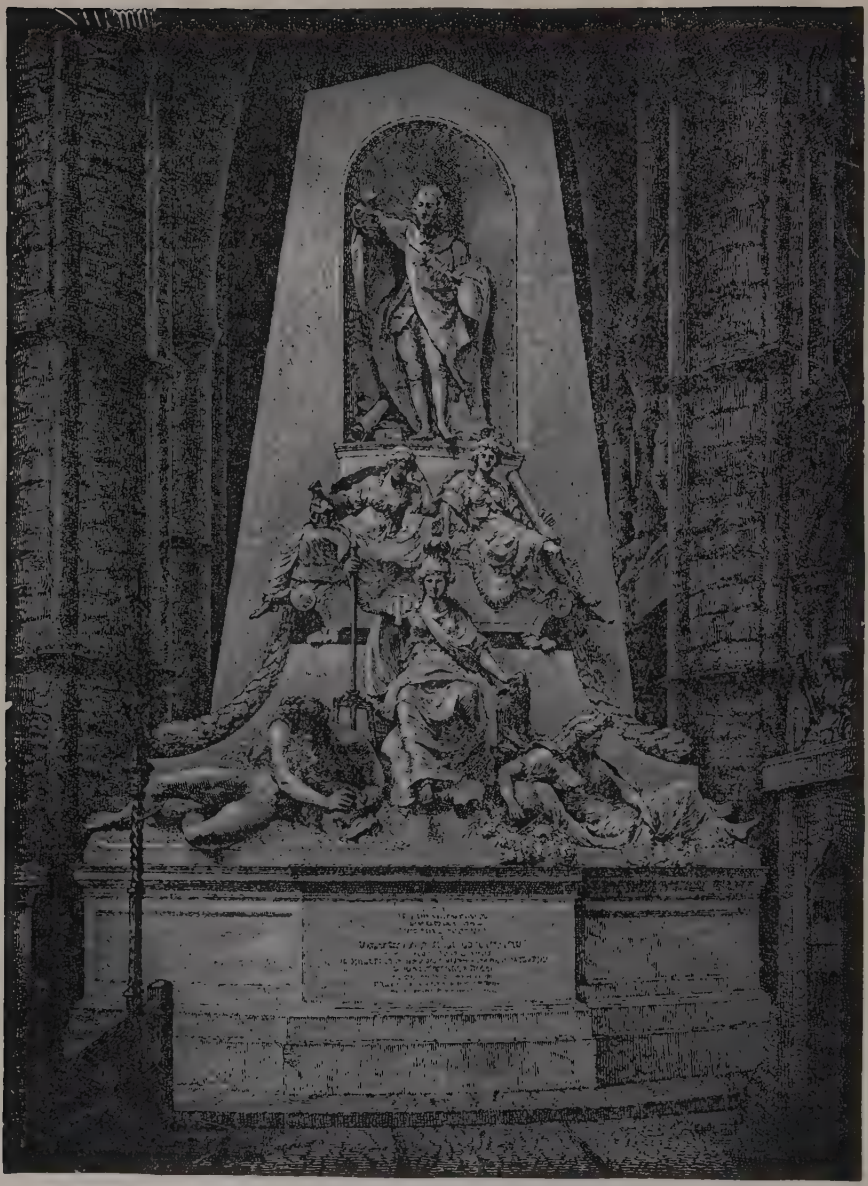
"Whose distant footsteps echo
Down the corridors of time,"

but no poet has ever been more universally beloved for his lyric sweetness and his white purity of soul.

Between the monuments of Philips and Drayton there is one which will have a melancholy interest for the visitor from across the Atlantic. It is that of Barton Booth, the actor, who died in 1733. His passion for acting was first stimulated by the applause which he won at the annual play of *Terence*, performed by the Westminster boys. He was at Westminster under the *plagosus Orbilius* of the school the celebrated Dr. Busby, and he escaped to Ireland to go on the stage. Among his lineal descendants are Mr. Edwin Booth, distinguished like his ancestor for his Shakespearian representations, and Wilkes Booth, the assassin of Lincoln in Ford's Theatre, Washington, on Good Friday, 1865. How many destinies, how many generations, were influenced by the applause given to a dashing Westminster boy about the year 1695!

While we are in Poets' Corner we may as well save time by stepping into the ancient chapter-house, in which were held not only the capitular meetings of the abbot and monks, but also, for three centuries, the sessions of the English Parliament. The stained-glass windows, originally designed by the "picturesque sensibility" of Dean Stanley, now form his worthy memorial. The first of the series was bequeathed by the dean himself; the second was given by Queen Victoria; the next is a token of the love and honor felt for him by his American friends. It is commemorative of events in the fourteenth century. The upper circle is occupied by Chaucer; the royal personages are Edward III., Queen Philippa, the Black Prince, and Richard II.; the scenes represented are, the abbot and monks in their chapter-house, the House of Commons with their speaker, the Black Prince carried into Parliament, and Richard II. meeting Wat Tyler. The Rev. Dr. Phillips Brooks, one of Dean Stanley's dearest friends, was invited by the Prince of Wales to be present as a representative of America at a meeting of the executive committee to carry out the Stanley memorial.

Coming back into the abbey from the chapter-house, give a glance at the long series of statesmen so many of whom were intimately concerned with the fortunes of America. There are Palmerston, who sent the troops to Canada after the Slidell and Mason affair; and Disraeli; and Canning, who used the proud sen-



THE EARL OF CHATHAM'S MONUMENT, WESTMINSTER ABBEY

tence, "I called the New World into existence to redress the balance of the Old"; and Chatham, his eagle face kindling with the passion with which he pleaded the rights of the colonists. There, too, lies Wilberforce, whose benevolent principles were practically the great question at stake in the American Civil War, and from whom the American abolitionists W. Lloyd Garrison and Wendell Phillips

drew no small part of their inspiration.

Among the statesmen in the north transept, next to the statue of Lord Beaconsfield, is the monument of the Irish admiral, Sir Peter Warren, who helped to take Louisburg from the French in 1745. He commanded on the American Station for years, and owned the tract of land in New York City once known as Greenwich Village. His house was still shown in 1863. Warren Street and Warren Place—which run through part of his original property—are named from him. Roubiliac in his bust has been so faithful as to indicate even the marks of the small-pox on Sir Peter's face.

Then, passing along the north ambulatory, take a long look at the monument of the "little, sickly, red-haired" hero and enthusiast whose courage and genius stormed the Heights of Abraham, and secured for Great Britain the possession of Canada. The figure of Wolfe is ridiculously represented undraped, only that the sculptor, Joseph Wilton, might conveniently display his knowledge of anatomy.

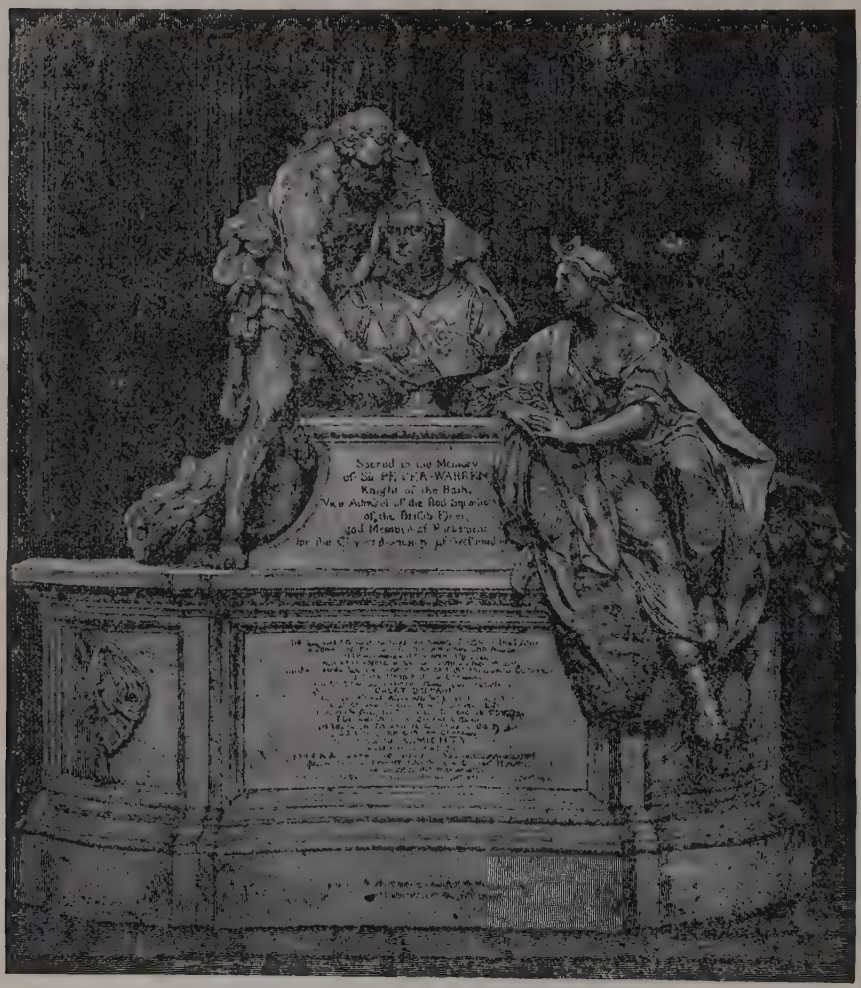
Just beyond the tomb is the chapel of Abbot Islip, over which you will see, in the Effigy Chamber, which can only be visited by a special order, the large chest in which the remains of André were sent home from America.

Passing into Henry VII.'s Chapel, Americans will certainly look with some sense of participation on Boehm's exquisite effigy of Dean Stanley. For America he always felt an enthusiastic affection, and his visit to America was the one event which conspicuously brightened his sad closing years. Nothing more delighted him than the enthusiastic interest of Americans in the abbey which he so dearly loved. He was always ready to show its wonders to the many transatlantic visitors who found in the deanery a cordial welcome. His sermons and addresses delivered in America have a permanent value, and will long endear him to the hearts of our kin beyond sea.

To the left of this little chapel is the one which forms the extreme east of Henry VII.'s Chapel, and of which the windows are still full of the significant emblems placed there by the royal builder. Here lay for a time the body of one of the most remarkable men and righteous rulers whom England has ever produced—the Lord Protector, Oliver Cromwell. In the chapel also lay his venerable mother, Elizabeth Cromwell, his sister, Mrs. Desborough, and others of his family. Here, too, or in other parts of the abbey, once lay the mortal bodies of Admiral Blake, one of the greatest of England's seamen; of Sir Thomas May, the translator of Lucan, and historian of the Long Parliament; of Pym and Strode and Bradshaw and Ireton. It is a shameful and too familiar fact that the bodies of Cromwell, Bradshaw, and Ireton were exhumed and hung on the gallows at Tyburn, and that their heads—"but not until they had quite done with them," as Carlyle says—were stuck on pikes at the top of Westminster Hall. Others of the commonwealth personages, to the number of twenty-one, were exhumed by an act of poor and base revenge, under an order dated at the Court of Whitehall, Sept. 9, 1661, and were flung promiscuously into a nameless pit at the northwest of the abbey, where their remains lie without a memorial to this day. Deep, indeed, would have been the interest of Americans in the graves of some of these. But the vault in which Cromwell lay was reserved in part to bury the illegitimate children of Charles II. Could there be a more striking proof that the Revolution had failed for the time than the fact that these scions of profligate amours were thought sufficiently royal for graves which the mortal remains of a Cromwell and a Blake had been supposed to desecrate?

With all the greater relief, then, will you walk back with me to Poets' Corner, and look on the memorial of John Milton. He died in 1674, and it required a century to elapse before England ventured on a public recognition of his supreme greatness. When Dr. Smalridge wrote for the statue of John Philips the ridiculous eulogy that he was "*Uni Miltono Secundus, primoque pœne par*," the line was erased by the narrow prejudice of Bishop Sprat, who would not have the walls of the abbey "polluted" by the name of the author of *Paradise Lost*, because that poet had written the *Defensio Populi Anglicani*, and been a friend of Cromwell, Harring

ton, and Vane. In 1737 the monument to Milton was erected by Auditor Benson. The admission of this monument here, a century and a half ago, is one more sign that the Revolution did not wholly fail even in England, and that there were



MONUMENT TO SIR PETER WARREN—WESTMINSTER ABBEY.

those who even then revered the names of Cromwell and Milton. But the principles of that Revolution, never wholly forgotten by Englishmen, were completely triumphant in America. The colonists carried to America, as Mr. Gladstone has said, "all that was democratic in the policy of England, and all that was Protestant in her religion." The yoke of absolutism which in the seventeenth century we had not strength to throw off in the mother-country you escaped in the colony, and there, beyond the reach of the Restoration, Milton's vision proved true, and a free community was founded, though in a humble and unsuspected form, which depended on the life of no single chief, and lived on when Cromwell died. Milton, when the night of the Restoration closed on the brief and stormy day of his party,

bated no jot of hope. He was strong in that strength of conviction which assures spirits like his of the future, however dark the present may appear. But could he have beheld it, the morning, moving westward in the track of the Puritan emigrants, had passed from his hemisphere only to shine in yours, with no fitful ray, but with a steady brightness which will in due time reillumine the feudal darkness of the Old World.

Westminster Assembly, an assembly of divines called at Westminster by the British Parliament in 1641. Urgent letters were sent to Messrs. Cotton, of Boston, Hooker, of Hartford, and Davenport, of New Haven, to represent the New England churches in that assembly. They declined the invitation, for they had word concerning a breach between Parliament and the King, and letters from England advised them to wait. It was at the beginning of the civil war in England. Besides, Mr. Hooker was then framing a system of church government for the Congregational churches of New England, let the determination of Westminster be what it might.

Westminster, TREATY OF, a treaty between England and Holland, concluded March 6, 1674. By this treaty, proclaimed simultaneously at London and The Hague, New Netherland was surrendered to the English. Information of this surrender was first made known to the Dutch governor, Clove, by two men from Connecticut. The inhabitants of New Orange (as New York had been renamed) were so exasperated that the bearers of the evil news were arrested and punished. They gathered in excited groups in the streets, and cursed the States-General for giving up the fairest colony belonging to the Dutch. They declared that no authority of States or Prince could compel them to yield the country to the English again; and that they would fight to defend it "so long as they could stand with one leg and fight with one hand." They had tasted of English liberty and found it bitter; but they quietly submitted.

Weston, EDWARD, electrician; born in England, May 9, 1850; came to the United States in 1870, and became chemist in the American Nickel-plating Company; studied dynamo-electric machinery in 1872; and invented the first copper-coated carbons in 1873. Two years later he settled in Newark, N. J., where he established the Weston Dynamo-Electric Machine Company in 1877, and four years later merged it with the United States Electric Lighting Company, of which he was electrician until 1888. He has made many improvements in electric lighting and other electrical devices. In 1888 he was made president of the American Institute of Electrical Engineers.

Weston, THOMAS, colonist; born in England about 1575; became a wealthy merchant in London. An active member of the Plymouth Company, he sold out his interest in the affair and entered upon speculation on his own account. Sixty men, chiefly indentured servants, without women, were sent to the Plymouth colony to make a new and independent settlement not far away. They subsisted for two or three months on the bounty of the Plymouth people, and committed thefts and other crimes. Late in the year (1622) they established themselves at Wissagasset (now Weymouth), on the south shore of Massachusetts Bay, where they wasted their provisions and were reduced to great distress. They dispersed in small parties, begging or stealing from the Indians, who finally resolved to destroy the unwelcome intruders. At about that time Edward Winslow visited and healed the sick Massasoit, who, in gratitude, gave his healer warning of the plot.

Winslow hastened back and laid the matter before the governor, when Captain Standish was sent with eight men, under the pretext of trade, to ascertain the truth and warn the Wissagasset men of their danger. He was ordered, if the natives were hostile, to bring back the head of Wituwamut, a noted warrior, mentioned as the leader of the conspirators. Standish found the Indians full of defiance. Taking this as an evidence of their guilt, Standish, being with the obnoxious chief and three of his followers in a cabin, and having his men with him, closed the door, and at a given signal seized the knife of one of the warriors and stabbed Wituwamut to the heart. Two of the others were slain, and the third—a boy—was hanged. The Indians, alarmed, fled to the swamps, and several more of them

were killed. Then the ill-favored plantation of Wissagasset was abandoned. Wituwamut's head was carried to Plymouth upon a pole and set up as a warning to the other Indians. This savage work distressed the good Robinson, who wrote to the Plymouth colonists, "Oh, how happy a thing would it have been that you had converted some before you killed any!" Weston died in England after 1624.

Weston's Colony. See WESTON, THOMAS.

Weyler y Nicolau, VALERIANO, military officer; born in Spain in 1840; became a lieutenant-general in the Spanish army and captain-general of the Canary Islands when thirty-nine years old as a reward for his services in the Santo Domingo campaign. He distinguished himself during the Carlist War, and attracted attention to himself during the Spanish War against the Moors in Africa. General Weyler was sent to Cuba in the early

GENERAL WEYLER.

part of the Ten Years' War and served under two captain-generals. He remained there more than two years and was sent back to Spain on account of complaints against him for alleged cruelty. It was during this campaign in Cuba that he received his title of "The Butcher." While there, his troops, with his knowledge, committed dreadful outrages in the province of Santiago, and especially in Camaguey.

In January, 1896, he was appointed captain-general of Cuba to succeed Gen. Martinez Campos. He landed at Havana, Feb. 10, and on the same day issued several addresses. To the military and civil authorities he said:

"It is quite impossible to concede that the status of the rebellion and the manner in which the rebel chiefs have overrun the island, the active pursuit by our troops being unable to check them, indicates indifference or a lack of spirit on the part of the inhabitants, for I do not understand how property holders can remain inactive and neutral while their plantations are being burned before their eyes, making no efforts whatever to aid those who would punish such vandalism. Nor can I explain how some, even among native Spaniards, residents of the island, can sympathize with the insurgents.

"It is therefore necessary for the government to throw more energy into the campaign, and thus reanimate the people, reinspiring them with new confidence in the final triumph of our cause, at the same time letting it be known that, while we are prepared to protect the lives and property of those loyal to Spain, we purpose to severely punish all who assist our enemies, directly or indirectly, or who endeavor in any wise to belittle the prestige of our troops, whether regulars or volunteers.

"We must insist that those who profess themselves loyal to the cause of Spain manifest it by acts as well as words, that all doubts as to their sincerity may be removed. All such must prove their fealty. If they are Spaniards they must send their sons to fight for Spain, and be willing to make the utmost sacrifice in defence of Spanish supremacy here as well as in the peninsula.

"To leave the regular forces free for operation smaller towns must organize and maintain their local defences, and residents therein suspected of sympathy with the revolution will be taken into custody and placed at the disposition of the military authorities for trial. Fresh guerillas must be organized and a better spy system inaugurated to keep track of the enemy's movements."

In a proclamation to the inhabitants of Cuba, he said:

"I take charge with the confidence which never abandons a cause of preserving the island for Spain. I shall be always generous with those who surrender.

but will have the decision and energy to punish rigorously those who in any way help the enemy. Without having in mind any political mission, I would not oppose the government of his Majesty when in its wisdom, having peace in Cuba, it should think it convenient to give this country reforms with the same spirit of love in which a mother gives all things to her children.

"Inhabitants of the island of Cuba, lend me your help. So you will defend your interests, which are the interests of the country."

On Feb. 17, he issued three proclamations, of which the following is the most important:

"First. Those who invent or circulate by any means whatever news or information, directly or indirectly, favorable to the rebellion will be considered guilty of acts against the security of the country as defined by Article 223 of the military code, as they thereby facilitate the operations of the enemy.

"Second. Those who destroy or damage railroads, telegraphs, or telephones, or interrupt the operations of the same.

"Third. Those who are guilty of arson.

"Fourth. Those who sell, carry, or deliver arms or ammunition to the enemy or in any other way facilitate their introduction through the custom-house. Parties failing to cause the seizure of such arms or ammunition will incur criminal responsibility.

"Fifth. Telegraph operators delivering war messages to other persons than the proper officers.

"Sixth. Those who by word of mouth, through the medium of the press, or in any other manner shall belittle the prestige of Spain, the army, volunteers, firemen, or any other force operating with the army.

"Seventh. Those who by the same means shall praise the enemy.

"Eighth. Those who shall furnish the enemy with horses or other resources of warfare.

"Ninth. Those who act as spies will be punished to the fullest extent of the law.

"Tenth. Those who shall act as guides to the enemy and fail to surrender themselves immediately and give proof of their loyalty and report the strength of the force employed by the enemy.

"Eleventh. Those who shall adulterate the food of the army or alter the prices of provisions.

"Twelfth. Those using explosives in violation of the decree of Oct. 17, 1895.

"Thirteenth. Those who shall use pigeons, rockets, or signals to convey news to the enemy.

"Fourteenth. The offences above mentioned are punishable by penalty of death or life imprisonment, the judges to take proceedings.

"Fifteenth. All orders conflicting with the foregoing are hereby revoked."

The second proclamation is as follows:

"First. All the inhabitants of the country within the jurisdiction of Sancti Spiritus and the provinces of Puerto Principe and Santiago will present themselves at the headquarters of a division, brigade, or column of the army, and provide themselves with a document proving their identity inside of eight days from the publication of this order in their respective townships.

"Second. To go into the country within the radius of the columns operating therein it is now necessary to obtain a pass from the mayor or military commander. Those failing to comply with this requirement will be detained and sent to Havana, subject to my orders. In case of doubt as to the genuineness of a pass or if there are reasons to suppose a party to have sympathy with the rebels or to aid them in any way, due responsibility for the same will be placed upon the officer issuing the pass.

"Third. All stores in the country districts must be vacated at once by their owners. Chiefs of column must also decide as to the disposition of such property, which, while being unproductive to the country, may, at the same time, serve as a habitation or hiding-place for the enemy.

"Fourth. All passes issued prior to this date are hereby cancelled."

His first important military movement was that against General Maceo, in the western part of the province of Pinar del Rio. No attention was paid to Gomez, who was in the province of Havana. Ten engagements were fought against Maceo's forces within fifteen days, with no ap-

preciable advantage to the Spaniards. Maceo, gifted in this general warfare, experienced no difficulty in moving his forces at will, and crossed the trocha into the province of Havana, despite the Spanish forces stationed there in anticipation of such a manœuvre. After a succession of unimportant operations the rainy season practically put an end to further developments. In the mean time reinforcements had come from Spain, and with the arrival of propitious weather Weyler took the field in person. He established headquarters on the line of the railroad between Havana and Pinar del Rio City, and several skirmishes ensued. Despite his reports of successful engagements with the insurgents, a continuous stream of wounded Spanish soldiers found their way back to Havana. Then came the *coup* resulting in the death of Maceo by the troops under Major Cirujada's command, and Weyler returned to Havana. He announced with complacency that Pinar del Rio was free from rebels. His second campaign was against Gomez. In the mean time the Spanish press had succeeded in arousing a feeling of dissatisfaction with the captain-general, but Señor Canovas was not brought into sympathy with this feeling. Weyler, on Jan. 11, 1897, announced that three provinces were pacified, and in spite of this news, reassuring in the Spanish capital, he again took the field, and spread destruction and ruin throughout the province of Matanzas, one of the "pacified" districts. Gomez succeeded in eluding Weyler in Matanzas, and only a few skirmishes ensued. These were reported as Spanish victories. Weyler next advanced into Santa Clara, where he was clearly outwitted by Gomez, but here again he had recourse to the torch. The captain-general was again in Havana on March 5, and on March 23 he instituted his unsuccessful campaign against Garcia. He was ordered to return to Havana on Sept. 5, and was succeeded as captain-general by Gen. Ramon y Arenas Blanco (*q. v.*).

After his return to Madrid the government decided to try him by court-martial for the publication of an address to the Queen Regent protesting against President McKinley's criticism of his rule in Cuba, but he defied the authorities to take proceedings against him; apologized to the Queen Regent; and on Oct. 20, 1900, was appointed captain-general of Madrid. In 1905 he became minister of war, and in 1909 coptain-general of Catalonia Province, in which capacity he instituted drastic measures against the insurgents in Barcelona. See Cuba; Reconcentrados.

Weymouth, Mass., is a seashore summer resort, but has extensive manufacturing and ship-building interests. It is the second oldest town in the State; was originally known as the plantation of Wessagusset. In May, 1622, "without a bite of bread," sixty-seven persons, sent out on his own account under a grant bought from the Council for New England, by Thomas Weston, one of the partners of the original grant which was made out to John Pierce from the London Company, plunged Plymouth into dire distress, from which they were happily saved by a ship-captain, John Huddleston, from the colony on James River, who shared his supplies with them, and thus enabled them to "make shift till corn was ripe again." Weston's emigrants were a loose set, and before they left in August they stole most of the green corn, and thus Plymouth was threatened with another famine. Fortunately, about this time another ship from Virginia, bearing the secretary of state, John Pory, arrived, and sold the colonists a supply of truck for trading; by which they bought from the Indians not only corn, but beaver, which proved afterwards a source of much profit.

Weston's people removed to Wessagusset (modern Weymouth), on Massachusetts Bay, where they conducted themselves in so reckless a manner that they ran the double risk of starvation and destruction by savages. To save them, Bradford, in March, 1623, despatched a company under Captain Miles Standish, who brought them corn and killed several of the Indians. Then Standish helped Weston's "rude fellows" aboard ship and saw them safely off to sea. Shortly after Weston came over to look after his emigrants, fell into the hands of the Indians, escaped to Plymouth, where the colonists helped him away, and reutrned in October, 1623, to create more disturbance.

Weston was not the only one of the partners that gave the colonists trouble. John Pierce took advantage of the prominence given him by the patent issued in his name for the benefit of all, to get a new one which made him sole actual owner of the territory. His partners resented this injustice, and the Council for New England, in March, 1623, was induced to revoke the grant to Pierce. Incorporated Sept. 3, 1635 (O. S.); enlarged by grant to it of Round Island and Grafe Island, March 9, 1637.

Weymouth, George, kidnapper; born in England; sailed thence for the coast of Maine on March 5, 1605. He came to anchor, May 17, near the island of Monhegan, 12 miles south of Pemaquid. Then he entered some of the bays and rivers of Maine, and saw (possibly) the White Mountains of New Hampshire. There was mutual distrust between Weymouth and the Indians, and the former decided to keep no faith with the latter. Five of the Indians who ventured on board the vessel were carried off to England, three of whom were given to Sir Ferdinando Gorges, at Plymouth; the other two were sent to Sir John Popham, of London. The curiosity excited by these Indians in London doubtless gave the idea expressed by Shakespeare in *The Tempest*, in which Trinculo says of the London people: "Any strange beast there makes a man: when they will not give a doit to relieve a lame beggar, they will lay out ten to see a dead Indian." Weymouth's kidnapping spread distrust and anger wide among the Indians on the Eastern coast. One of the Indians carried away came, in May, 1607, as guide and interpreter for a colony of 120 persons, sent out in two vessels, commanded by George Popham, to plant a colony in eastern New England.

Whaling Industry. Whaling seems to have originated in ancient times and independently in many parts of the world. Indians, Eskimos, Japanese, Tartars, and Norsemen were among the early whale-hunters. In 1680 the Dutch had 266 ships and 14,000 sailors engaged in whaling off Spitzbergen and Greenland, and in 1815 the British whale fishery was in its most flourishing condition, yet only 164 vessels were engaged in it. During the eighteenth century the United States entered this field, and soon distanced all other countries, the industry having its chief seats in New York, New England, Delaware, and California.

About 1750 the fishery off Newfoundland was prosecuted with vessels of as much as 130 tons. New Bedford, destined to become the metropolis of the American whale fishery, entered on the business about 1755. In 1765 Boston had 100 small vessels. Toward the last quarter of the eighteenth century the whalers became more adventurous, and voyaged to the Brazil Banks, Cape Verde Islands, West Indies, etc., but further progress was stopped by the Revolutionary War, and many American whalemen sought fortune in Europe. The first whale ship that ventured into the Pacific was sent from England in 1787, and was manned by Nantucket men. Subsequently the coasts of Chile and Peru and of East Africa were visited. In 1839 the American whale fishery, having recovered from its temporary decline, boasted a fleet of 557 vessels. In 1846 the fleet consisted of 678 ships and barks, 35 brigs, and 22 schooners, but soon after this date the fishery began to decline.

In 1890 the North Pacific fleet comprised 44 vessels and the catch was 14,885 barrels of oil, 241,360 pounds of bone, and 4,000 pounds of ivory. In 1905 New Bedford and Provincetown whalers, in the Atlantic fleet, reported a marked revival in the industry, the catch being 3,933,554 pounds of oil, 55,950 pounds of bone, and 94 pounds (value, $16,900) of ambergris. In 1908 the catch of the Atlantic fleet was 3,722,000 pounds of oil and 31,000 pounds of bone; of the Pacific fleet, 182,000 pounds of oil and 32,000 pounds of bone; and of the Alaska fleet, 1,232,850 pounds of oil and 63,640 pounds of bone—the combined catch having a market value of $749,697.

Whalley, Edward, regicide; born in England, presumably about 1620; joined the Parliamentary party in the revolution of 1642; led a command which defeated the cavalry of Sir Marmaduke Langdale at Naseby in 1645, for which he was appointed colonel. Later he had charge of King Charles at Hampton Court, and was one of the members of the high court of justice which pronounced the death pen-

alty against him, and also one of the signers of his death warrant. He fled to America with William Goffe, his son-in-law, after the restoration. He died in Hadley, Mass., about 1678.

Wharton, ANNE HOLLINGSWORTH, author; born in Southampton Furnace, Pa., Dec. 15, 1845; received a private-school education; has written chiefly on colonial and Revolutionary topics; was a judge of the American colonial exhibit at the World's Columbian Exposition. She is the author of *Through Colonial Days; Colonial Days and Dames; A Last Century Maid; Life of Martha Washington; Salons Colonial and Republican; Social Life in the Early Republic,* etc.

Wharton, FRANCIS, jurist; born in Philadelphia, Pa., March 7, 1820; graduated at Yale University in 1839; admitted to the bar in 1843; editor of the Revolutionary diplomatic correspondence of the United States by act of Congress in 1888. He died in Washington, D. C., Feb. 21, 1889.

Wharton, JOSEPH, merchant; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Aug. 4, 1707; became wealthy in his business; was the owner of Walnut Grove, where the MISCHIANZA (q. v.) of 1778 was celebrated. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., in July, 1776.

Wharton, ROBERT, mayor; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Jan. 12, 1757; was employed in the counting-house of his brother Charles, a merchant in Philadelphia; elected alderman in 1796. During that year he put down a riot of organized sailors who were refused exorbitant wages; in 1798 he also put an end to the Walnut Street prison act; was mayor of Philadelphia in 1798–1834. Mr. Wharton was president of the famous Schuylkill Fishing Company in 1812–28. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., March 7, 1834.

Wharton, THOMAS, governor; born in Chester county, Pa., in 1735. He strenuously opposed the Stamp Act, and when, after the closing of Boston Harbor, an indignation meeting was held in Philadelphia, May 20, 1774, he was placed on the committee of correspondence. In 1775 he was one of the twenty-five members of the committee of safety and in 1776 was president of the council. He was governor of Pennsylvania in 1777–78. He died in Lancaster, Pa., May 22, 1778.

Wheat, the second most valuable farm crop in the United States. The following table shows the acreage, production, and value of winter and spring wheat combined, by States and Territories, in the calendar year 1910:

States & Terr.	Acreage.	Production.	Total value.
		Bushels.	Dollars.
Maine	9,000	267,000	272,000
N. Hampshire			
Vermont	1,000	29,000	30,000
Connecticut			
New York	444,000	10,523,000	10,102,000
New Jersey	111,000	2,053,000	2,012,000
Pennsylvania	1,556,000	27,679,000	25,481,000
Delaware	122,000	2,074,000	1,867,000
Maryland	794,000	13,816,000	12,711,000
Virginia	795,000	10,176,000	9,871,000
N. Carolina	652,000	7,433,000	8,176,000
S. Carolina	453,000	4,983,000	6,279,000
Georgia	260,000	2,730,000	3,549,000
Alabama	130,000	1,560,000	1,763,000
Mississippi	5,000	70,000	81,000
Texas	1,252,000	18,780,000	18,404,000
Arkansas	195,000	2,710,000	2,547,000
Tennessee	910,000	10,647,000	10,434,000
West Virginia	410,000	5,125,000	5,228,000
Kentucky	750,000	9,600,000	8,928,000
Ohio	1,944,000	31,493,000	28,344,000
Michigan	869,000	15,642,000	13,921,000
Indiana	2,627,000	40,981,000	35,653,000
Illinois	2,100,000	31,500,000	27,720,000
Wisconsin	191,000	3,659,000	3,366,000
Minnesota	5,880,000	94,080,000	88,435,000
Iowa	530,000	11,131,000	9,462,000
Missouri	1,821,000	25,130,000	21,863,000
Kansas	4,420,000	62,068,000	52,137,000
Nebraska	2,450,000	39,515,000	31,612,000
South Dakota	3,650,000	46,720,000	41,581,000
North Dakota	7,221,000	36,105,000	32,494,000
Montana	480,000	10,560,000	9,081,000
Wyoming	107,000	2,675,000	2,552,000
Colorado	393,000	8,721,000	7,151,000
New Mexico	43,000	860,000	860,000
Arizona	17,000	379,000	455,000
Utah	255,000	5,708,000	4,795,000
Nevada	40,000	1,160,000	1,264,000
Idaho	562,000	12,603,000	9,074,000
Washington	1,486,000	25,603,000	19,970,000
Oregon	764,000	16,414,000	13,788,000
California	950,000	17,100,000	16,074,000
Oklahoma	1,556,000	25,363,000	22,066,000
Total	49,205,000	695,443,000	621,443,000

Of the total production, winter wheat furnished 464,044,000 bushels, valued at $413,575,000; spring wheat, 231,399,000 bushels, valued at $207,868,000. For later statistics, see UNITED STATES; AGRICULTURE.

Wheatley, PHILLIS, poet; born in Africa, of negro parents, presumably in 1753; was purchased as a slave by John Wheatley, of Boston, in 1761. She received a private education, and developed marvellous powers of acquisition. Both Washington and Thomas Jefferson referred to her poetry in high terms. Her publications include *An Elegiac Poem on the Death of George Whitfield, Chaplain to the Countess of Huntingdon; The Negro*

Equalled by Few Europeans (poems, 2 volumes); *Elegy Sacred to the Memory of Dr. Samuel Cooper*, etc. She died in Boston, Mass., Dec. 5, 1784.

Wheatley, RICHARD, clergyman; born near York, England, July 14, 1831; received an academic education; was ordained in the Methodist Episcopal Church; came to the United States and settled in New York State. He is the author of *Biographic Encyclopædia of the New England States in the Nineteenth Century; History of the World from the Creation to the Close of the Middle Ages;* many magazine articles, etc.

Wheaton, FRANK, military officer; born in Providence, R. I., May 8, 1833. A civil engineer, he was employed in the Mexican boundary surveys (1850–55), and, in the latter year, became a lieutenant of United States cavalry, and was employed against the Indians. He was made captain of the 1st United States Cavalry early in 1861, and was lieutenant-colonel of the 2d Rhode Island Volunteers at the battle of Bull Run. He served through the campaign on the Peninsula, and fought in the battles of Manassas, Antietam, and Fredericksburg, and commanded a brigade at Gettysburg; was active in the campaign against Richmond in 1864, and commanded a division of the 6th Corps in the Shenandoah Valley under Sheridan. He went with Sheridan to the siege of Petersburg, and was at the surrender of Lee. He was brevetted brigadier and major general of volunteers, and in March, 1865, major-general, United States army, for "meritorious services during the Rebellion." In 1874 he was promoted colonel; in 1892 brigadier-general; in 1897 major-general, and was retired. He died in Washington, D. C., June 18, 1903.

Wheaton, HENRY, diplomatist; born in Providence, R. I., Nov. 27, 1785; graduated at Brown University in 1802; studied law abroad, and began its practice at Providence. In 1812 he removed to New York, where he edited the *National Advocate*, in which the subject of neutral rights was discussed. From 1816 until 1827 he was reporter of the Supreme Court of the United States, and published 12 volumes of its decisions. In the New York constitutional convention of 1821 he was a prominent member, and was one of the commissioners to revise the statutes of the State of New York. From 1827 to 1835 he was *chargé d'affaires* to Denmark; from 1835 to 1837 resident minister at Berlin; and from 1837 to 1846 minister plenipotentiary there. He returned to New York in 1847, and was made Professor of International Law in Harvard College, but died before the time appointed for his installation. Mr. Wheaton was a voluminous writer upon various subjects, and as a reporter he was unrivalled. In 1843 he became a corresponding member of the French Institute, and the next year a foreign member of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Berlin. He wrote biography, history, and essays upon law. He is most widely known for his *History of the Laws of Nations in Europe and America from the Earliest Times to the Treaty of Washington* (a prize essay, written for the French Institute). He died in Dorchester, Mass., March 11, 1848.

Wheaton, LOYD, military officer; born in Michigan, July 15, 1838. When the Civil War began he enlisted as a private in the 8th Illinois Regiment; served through the war, becoming colonel of his regiment, and received a medal from Congress for meritorious services. After the war he was appointed captain of the 34th United States Infantry; was assigned to the 20th Infantry in 1869; promoted major in 1891; transferred to the 22d Infantry, and promoted lieutenant-colonel in 1895; later was promoted colonel of the 7th Infantry. In July, 1898, he was appointed a brigadier-general of United States volunteers, and served through the Cuban campaign; and was present when the American flag was raised in Havana, Jan. 1, 1899. He was ordered to the Philippines in command of the 20th Infantry, in January, 1899. In March of the same year he defeated 2,000 Filipinos at Pasig, and occupied Taging and Pateros. Later he took part in other operations there. In 1901 he was promoted brigadier-general and major-general, U. S. A.; and in 1902 was retired.

Wheeler, BENJAMIN IDE, educator; born in Randolph, Mass., July 15, 1854; graduated at Brown University in 1875; held an instructorship at Brown in 1879–81; and at Harvard College in 1885–86;

accepted the chair of Comparative Philology at Cornell University in 1886, and that of Greek in the same institution in 1896; became president of the University of California in July, 1899. He is the author of *The Greek Noun-Accent; Analogy in Language; Introduction to the History of Language; Organization of Higher Education in the United States; Life of Alexander the Great*, etc.; was the editor of the department of philology in *Johnson's Universal Cyclopædia*, and of the same department in *Macmillan's Dictionary of Philosophy and Psychology.*

Wheeler, JOHN HILL, historian; born in Murfreesboro, N. C., Aug. 6, 1806; graduated at Columbian University in 1826 and at the Law School of the North Carolina University in 1828. In 1831, under a treaty with France, he was appointed secretary of the commission to settle claims of Americans for losses occasioned by the treaties of Berlin and Milan. He was treasurer of North Carolina in 1841, and minister to Nicaragua in 1854–57. His publications include *History of North Carolina; Reminiscences and Memoirs of North Carolina*, etc. He died in Washington, D. C., Dec. 7, 1882.

Wheeler, JOSEPH, military officer; born in Augusta, Ga., Sept. 10, 1836; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1859; was assigned to the cavalry and served till 1861, when he resigned to enter the Confederate army, in which he became major-general and senior commander of cavalry.

During the Civil War he was conspicuous as a raider. On Oct. 2, 1863, when Bragg's chief of cavalry, he crossed the Tennessee River at Bridgeport with about 4,000 mounted men, pushed up the Sequatchie Valley, and burned a National supply-train of nearly 1,000 wagons on its way to Chattanooga. Just as he had finished his destructive work, Col. E. M. McCook attacked him. The battle continued until night, when Wheeler, discomfited, moved off in the darkness and attacked another supply-train at McMinnville. This was captured and destroyed, and 600 men were made prisoners. Then, after the mischief was done, he was attacked (Oct. 4) by Gen. George Crook, with 2,000 cavalry. There was another sharp fight until dark, when Wheeler withdrew and pushed on towards Murfreesboro. He could do nothing, and turned southward, with his relentless pursuers at his heels, doing all the mischief in his power. At Farmington, below the Duck River, Crook struck him, cut his force in two, captured four of his guns and 1,000 small-arms, with 200 of his men, besides his wounded, and drove him in confusion into northern Alabama. Wheeler made his way back to Bragg's army, with a loss of 2,000 men, but had captured nearly as many and destroyed National property of the value, probably, of $3,000,000.

JOSEPH WHEELER

Towards the close of July, 1864, Hood, commanding the Confederates at Atlanta, sent Wheeler, with the greater part of his cavalry, to capture National supplies, burn bridges, and break up railways in Sherman's rear. He moved swiftly, with about 8,000 horsemen. He struck and broke the railway at Calhoun, captured 900 horses in that vicinity, and seriously menaced Sherman's depot of supplies at Allatoona, in the middle of August. This was at the time when Sherman was about to make his movement to flank Hood out of Atlanta. This movement brought Wheeler back. After the evacuation of Atlanta, Hood having crossed to the north side of the Chattahoochee, Wheeler swept around Allatoona, and, appearing before Dalton, demanded its surrender. The little garrison held out until Wheeler was driven away by General Steedman, who came down from Chattanooga. Then he

pushed into east Tennessee, made a circuit around Knoxville, by way of Strawberry Plains, crossed the Clinch River, went over the Cumberland Mountains, and appeared before McMinnville, Murfreesboro, and Lebanon. National cavalry, under Rousseau, Steedman, and Granger, was on the alert, and soon drove the raiders into northern Alabama, by way of Florence. Although Wheeler had destroyed much property, his damage to Sherman's communications was very slight.

After the war he engaged in law practice; was a Democratic Representative in Congress in 1881–99; commissioned major-general of volunteers, May 4, 1898; commanded the cavalry division of the Army of Santiago, taking part in the battles of Las Guasimas and San Juan; and was senior member of the commission which negotiated the surrender of the Spanish army and territory at Santiago. After a brief visit to the United States he was assigned to command the 1st Brigade, 2d Division of the Army in the Philippines, where he served from August, 1899, till Jan. 24, 1900. He was appointed a brigadier-general (June 16, 1900), and was retired on Sept. 10 following. He died in Brooklyn, N. Y., Jan. 25, 1906.

Wheeler, SAMUEL, blacksmith; born in Weccaco, Pa., in 1742; was in the Continental army during the Revolutionary War, and at the personal request of Washington made the chain which was stretched across the Hudson River at West Point to prevent the passage of British vessels. He also manufactured a cannon by welding together iron bars, which did better execution, had a longer range, and was not so heavy as brass ordnance. During the action at Brandywine this gun did such good service that it was regarded as a wonder by American officers, but before the conclusion of that battle it was captured and afterwards sent to England, where it was exhibited in the Tower of London. Later, Napoleon Bonaparte used a pattern of it as a model for the cannon used by his flying artillery. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., May 10, 1820. See CLINTON, FORT, CAPTURE OF.

Wheeler, THOMAS, military officer; born in England about 1620; removed to Concord, Mass., in 1642; took part and was wounded in King Philip's War; was military escort, in July, 1675, to Capt. Edward Hutchinson, of Boston, who was appointed to treat with the Indians in the Nipmuck country. His *Narrative* of that expedition is found in the *Collections* of the New Hampshire Historical Society. He died in Concord, Mass., Dec. 16, 1686.

Wheeler, WILLIAM ALMON, statesman; born in Malone, N. Y., June 30, 1819; received a collegiate education; studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1845; district attorney of Franklin county, N. Y., in 1846–49; member of Congress in 1860-62 and 1869–77; and in 1874 was the author of the celebrated Wheeler compromise, by which the political troubles in Louisiana were arranged, William P. Kellogg being recognized as governor, while the State Senate became Republican and the House Democratic. While he was a member of Congress the famous "salary grab" act was passed without his aid or approval. He took the additional salary that fell to him, but immediately he bought government bonds with it, assigned them to the Secretary of the Treasury, and, turning them over to the latter, had them cancelled. In this way

WILLIAM ALMON WHEELER.

he put the money beyond possible reach of himself or his heirs. He was elected Vice-President of the United States in 1876 on the ticket headed by Rutherford B. Hayes. He died in Malone, N. Y., June 4, 1887.

The following is the text of the Wheeler compromise:

NEW YORK, *March 13, 1875.*

The undersigned having been requested to examine the claims of the persons hereinafter named to seats in the Senate and House of Representatives of the State of Louisiana, and having examined the returns and the evidence relating to such claims, are of opinion, and do hereby find, award, and determine, that F. S. Goode is entitled to a seat in the Senate from the 22d Senatorial District; and that J. B. Elam is not entitled to a seat in the Senate from the 8th Senatorial District; and that the following named persons are entitled to seats in the House of Representatives from the following named parishes respectively: From the parish of Assumption, R. R. Beaseley, E. F. X. Dugas; from the parish of Bienville, James Brice; from the parish of De Soto, J. S. Scales, Charles Schuler; from the parish of Jackson, E. Kidd; from the parish of Rapides, James Jeffries, R. C. Luckett, G. W. Stafford; from the parish of Terrebone, Edward McCollum, W. H. Keyes; from the parish of Winn, George A. Kelley. And that the following named persons are not entitled to seats which they claim from the following named parishes respectively, but that the persons now holding seats from said parishes are entitled to retain the seats now held by them: From the parish of Avovelles, J. O. Quinn; from the parish of Iberie, W. F. Schwing; from the parish of Caddo, A. D. Land, T. R. Vaughan, J. J. Horan. We are of opinion that no person is entitled to a seat from the parish of Grant.

In regard to most of the cases, the undersigned are unanimous; as to the others the decision is that of a majority.

GEORGE F. HOAR,
W. A. WHEELER,
W. P. FRYE,
CHARLES FOSTER,
CLARKSON N. POTTER,
WILLIAM WALTER PHELPS,
SAMUEL S. MARSHALL.

Wheeling, a city, port of entry, and county seat of Ohio county, W. Va.; on the Ohio River, 63 miles west of Pittsburg, Pa. It was settled by Col. Ebenezer Zane in 1769; provided with a stockade work named Fort Henry to protect it against Indian hostilities in 1774; was the scene of Indian attacks in 1777 and 1781; and was besieged by the British, Sept. 11, 1782, when Colonel Zane successfully defended the fort without loss to his small garrison. Colonel Zane laid out a town here in 1793, which was incorporated in 1806 and 1836, and became the capital of the new government of Virginia in 1861, the place of meeting of the convention from which grew the State of West Virginia, and was the capital of the State in 1863–70 and 1875–85. Population in 1900, 38,878. See ZANE, EBENEZER.

Wheelock, ELEAZAR, educator; born in Windham, Conn., April 22, 1711; graduated at Yale College in 1733; was pastor of a Congregational church at Lebanon, Conn., in 1735, and remained there thirty-five years. He opened a school there in 1754, in which was a bright Indian pupil, Samson Occum. His proficiency led to the establishment of "Moore's Indian School," which eventually became Dartmouth College, of which Dr. Wheelock was the first president. He died in Hanover, N. H., April 24, 1779.

Wheelock, JOHN, educator; born in Lebanon, Conn., Jan. 28, 1754; graduated at Dartmouth College in 1771; appointed lieutenant-colonel in the American army in 1778, in which year he served against the Indians, and then became a member of the staff of Gen. Horatio Gates. He was president of Dartmouth College in 1779–1815; and in the latter year, owing to religious beliefs and a conflict with the trustees, he was deposed, an action which caused a storm of protest from the people. In the following year the legislature, claiming the right to do so, reorganized the college under a new board of trustees, who replaced Dr. Wheelock in 1817. He served, however, only a few months, when he died in Hanover, N. H., on April 4. In the mean time the old trustees went to the State Supreme Court to recover the college property, and lost their case, but on an appeal to the Supreme Court of the United States they were successful. It

was in this trial, called the Dartmouth College case, that DANIEL WEBSTER (*q. v.*) began his famous career as a constitutional lawyer.

Wheelwright, JOHN, clergyman; born in Lincolnshire, England, about 1592; was a graduate of Cambridge University, England, and a classmate of Cromwell. Being driven from his church by Archbishop Laud, in 1636, for Non-conformity, he came to Boston and was chosen pastor of a church in (present) Braintree. Mr. Wheelwright seconded the theological views of ANNE HUTCHINSON (*q. v.*), and publicly defended them, for which offence he was banished from the Massachusetts Bay colony. He founded Exeter, on a branch of the Piscataqua River; and when, five years later, that town was declared to be within the jurisdiction of Massachusetts, he removed with his family to Wells, Me. In 1646, he returned to Massachusetts, a reconciliation having been effected; and in 1657 he went to England. He returned in 1660, and in May, 1662, became pastor of a church at Salisbury, Mass., where he died, Nov. 15, 1679.

Wheildon, WILLIAM WILDER, journalist; born in Boston, Mass., Oct. 17, 1800; became a legislative reporter on the Boston *Statesman* in 1825; established the *Bunker Hill Aurora* in Charlestown in 1827, and published it for forty-four years; studied law, but never practised; and removed to Concord, Mass., in 1846. He wrote *Curiosities of History; Siege and Evacuation of Boston and Charlestown, with a Brief Account of Pre-Revolutionary Buildings; Sentry of Beacon Hill, its Beacon and Monument; Paul Revere's Signal Lanterns;* and *New History of the Battle of Bunker Hill.* He died in Concord, Mass., Jan. 7, 1892.

Wherry, WILLIAM M., military officer; born in St. Louis, Mo., Sept. 13, 1836; received a public school education, and studied law; served through the Civil War; took part in the battles of Wilson's Creek, Dallas, Kenesaw Mountain, Atlanta, Jonesboro, Franklin, Nashville, and others; aide-de-camp to General Schofield in 1862–66 and 1867–85; served in Cuba during the American-Spanish War, taking part in the battle at San Juan Hill and in the capture of Santiago; was promoted brigadier-general, United States army, Jan. 7, 1899, and retired at his own request, Jan. 18, 1899. He is the author of *Battle of Wilson's Creek, Mo.; Death of General Lyon; Battles and Leaders of the Civil War;* and *Lyon's Campaign in Missouri* in the *Journal* of the Ohio Commandery, Loyal Legion, vol. iii., 1896–97

Whigs and Tories. The word Whig, in politics, is derived from "whig," or "whey," which the country people in the interior of England drank at their religious meetings. As these people were Non-conformists, in Church and State, in the reign of Charles II. and James II., the term Whig came to be applied to all opposers of the throne and of the hierarchy. The word Tory seems to have been first applied to the Irish insurgents at the time of a massacre of Protestants in Ireland in 1640–41. The origin of the word is unknown. The name was applied to all High-Churchmen and royalists, and hence the name of Whig was given to all opposers of the royal government, and Tory to its supporters. This is the commonly received statement concerning these political names. Another account says that the drivers of horses in certain parts of Scotland used the word "whiggamore" in driving, and were called Whiggamores, and, shorter, Whigs. An insurrectionary movement from that region, when about 6,000 people marched on Edinburgh, was called the "Whiggamore inroad," and ever afterwards those who opposed the Court were called Whigs. These distinctions were first used in the English-American colonies about 1770.

Whipping, a very frequent method of punishment in the colonies, especially in New England, for many of the minor offences against the good order of society. The stocks, the pillory, and the whipping-post were inherited by the colonists from England. In Massachusetts whipping was used almost daily, somewhere, as a theological argument against heretics, as well as a correction of social vices in which fines and imprisonments were inoperative. Whipping was the common punishment for Quakers in New England, without distinction of age or sex, especially after King Charles frowned upon the infliction of the death penalty upon the Friends in Massachusetts. Whenever they found a Quaker preaching to

the people the offender was lashed (often with a triple-knotted cord). Men and women were tied to the cart's tail and scourged from town to town. Three women preached in Dover, N. H., late in December, 1662, and were driven, from constable to constable, through several towns, receiving ten lashes from each, on their bared backs, though the weather was bitterly cold and the snow deep. At one place, two by-standers, expressing sympathy for the poor women, were put into the stocks to suppress their humanity. In Cambridge, Mass., a woman sixty-five years of age was cast into jail, without food, and with nothing to lie upon. A Friend brought her some milk, when he was fined £5 and put into the same jail. This old woman was whipped through three towns. She returned to Boston several times, and was whipped each time. She was last whipped there on the day when the active persecutor, John Endicott, was buried, in 1665. She attended the funeral, and was imprisoned immediately afterwards. Persecutions, in various forms—fines, stripes, imprisonments, personal mutilations, and injuries by mobs—were visited upon the Quakers everywhere; but only among the rigid Puritans of Massachusetts was the penalty of death ever inflicted upon them. See QUAKERS.

Whipple, ABRAHAM, naval officer; born in Providence, R. I., Sept. 16, 1733; went to sea in early life; commanded a ship in the West India trade, and in 1759–60 was captain of a privateer, capturing in a single cruise twenty-six French vessels. His vessel was called the *Game Cock*. In June, 1772, Whipple commanded the volunteers who burned the *Gaspee* in Narraganset Bay. In 1775 he was put in command of two armed vessels fitted out by Rhode Island, and was given the title of commodore. With these he drove Sir James Wallace, in command of the frigate *Rose*, out of Narraganset Bay. He was in command of a flotilla in the harbor of Charleston at the time of the siege and capture of that city in 1780. On March 21 of that year, the British marine force, under Admiral Arbuthnot, crossed the bar at Charleston. It consisted of one 54-gun ship, two 44-gun ships, four of thirty-two guns, and the *Sandwich*, also an armed ship. Whipple was in the outer harbor with a flotilla of small vessels. Finding he could not prevent the British ships from passing the bar, he fell back to the waters immediately in front of Charleston and transferred all the crews and

ABRAHAM WHIPPLE.

guns of his vessels, excepting one, to the batteries on the shore. The commodore sunk most of his own and some merchant vessels near Shute's Folly, at the mouth of the Cooper River, to prevent British vessels from entering it. After the capture of the city he lost his vessels, was made a prisoner, and so continued during the remainder of the war. On the formation of the Ohio Company he took his family and settled at Marietta, where he died, May 29, 1819.

Whipple, AMIEL WEEKS, military engineer; born in Greenwich, Mass., in 1818; graduated at West Point in 1841. Before the Civil War he was engaged, as topographical engineer, in ascertaining the northern boundary between New York and Vermont, and was an assistant of the Mexican boundary commission in 1849. Early in 1861 he was made chief engineer on the staff of General McDowell, and was in the first battle of Bull Run. In April, 1862, he was on General McClellan's staff, and was made brigadier-general of volunteers. He was assigned to duty at Washington as commander of the defences of that city. Having asked to be sent to the field, his division was assigned to the 9th Corps. He fought gallantly at Fredericksburg and Chancellorsville, and was mortal-

ly wounded in battle at the latter place, dying in Washington, D. C., May 7, 1863.

Whipple, EDWIN PERCY, author; born in Gloucester, Mass., March 8, 1819; received a high school education; became a forceful debater, ready writer, and a popular lecturer on social, critical, biographical, and other topics. His publications include *Rufus Choate; Washington and the Principles of the American Revolution; Daniel Webster as a Master of English Style,* etc. He died in Boston, Mass., June 16, 1886.

Whipple, HENRY BENJAMIN, clergyman; born in Adams, N. Y., Feb. 15, 1823; studied theology; ordained in the Protestant Episcopal Church in 1849; held charges in Rome, N. Y., and Chicago, Ill., till 1859, when he was elected the first bishop of Minnesota. He declined the bishopric of the Hawaiian Islands; established a free church system in Chicago; was a stanch friend of the Indians; was active in the work for the elevation of the negroes in the South; and founded three institutions of learning in Faribault, Minn., the Seabury Divinity School, the Shattuck School for boys, and St. Mary's Hall for girls. He conducted the first Episcopal service held in Havana, Cuba, in 1871; preached the memorial sermon at the unveiling of the Tennyson Memorial on the Isle of Wight, in 1897; represented the Protestant Episcopal Church of the United States at the Centenary Church Missionary Society of England, London, in 1899; and after the close of the American-Spanish War spent some months in Porto Rico in the interest of his Church. He died in Faribault, Minn., Sept. 16, 1901.

Whipple, WILLIAM, a signer of the Declaration of Independence; born in Kittery, Me., Jan. 14, 1730; became a sailor; removed to Portsmouth, N. H., in 1759, where he engaged in the West India trade and African slave-trade, in which he acquired a considerable fortune. He was a member of the Provincial Congress in 1775, and of the Continental Congress in 1776. He was brigadier-general of the New Hampshire troops at Saratoga in the Revolutionary War; signed the articles of capitulation with Burgoyne; was a member of Congress in 1778–79; financial receiver of the State of New Hampshire in 1782–84, and judge of the Superior Court from 1782 till his death, in Portsmouth, Nov. 28, 1785.

Whiskey Insurrection, THE. Resistance to the excise on domestic spirits appeared in various places with more or less strength. In the region of the regulators and Tory stronghold in NORTH CAROLINA (*q. v.*) during the Revolution there was very strong opposition, but resistance far more formidable was made in the four counties of Pennsylvania west of the Alleghany Mountains. These counties had been chiefly settled by the Scotch-Irish, who were mostly Presbyterians, men of great energy, decision, and restive under the restraints of law and order. A lawless spirit prevailed among them. They converted their rye crops into whiskey, and when the excise laws imposed duties on domestic distilled liquors the people disregarded them. A new excise act, passed in the spring of 1794, was specially unpopular; and when, soon after the adjournment of Congress, officers were sent to enforce the act in the western districts of Pennsylvania they were resisted by the people in arms. The insurrection became general throughout all that region, stimulated by leading men in the community. In the vicinity of Pittsburg many outrages were committed. Buildings were burned, mails were robbed, and government officers were insulted and abused. One officer was stripped of all his clothing, smeared with warm tar, and the contents of a feather bolster emptied upon him. The local militia formed a part of the armed mob, at one time numbering between 6,000 and 7,000 men.

The insurgent spirit spread into the neighboring counties of Virginia, and Washington and his cabinet perceived with alarm this imitation of the lawlessness of French politics. The situation was alarming and needed immediate attention. Washington observed that the leaders in the insurrection were connected with the Democratic secret societies under the influence of the French revolutionists. How wide-spread and insidious was this conspiracy against the laws of the country he knew not, but he was satisfied that only the leaders of these societies were aware of a traitorous plan; for he believed, with justice, that the great body of the insur-

gents were patriotic citizens. He took prompt measures to suppress the insurrection. Governor Mifflin refused to call out the militia of Pennsylvania, and Washington resolved to act with vigor. As President of the United States he called upon the governors of Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Maryland, and Virginia for a body of 13,000 men, afterwards raised to 15,000. The insurgent counties could bring 16,000 fighting men into the field.

The troops were placed under the command of Gen. Henry Lee, of Virginia, and their movement was fixed for Sept. 1. Meanwhile three commissioners were sent to the insurgent counties with discretionary authority to arrange for a submission to the laws. Two other commissioners were appointed by the State of Pennsylvania. The two boards crossed the mountains and found the leading insurgents in convention at Parkinson's Ferry. Near by stood a liberty-pole, with the legend "Liberty, and no Excise! No asylum for cowards and traitors!" A committee of fifteen met the commissioners at Pittsburgh. Among them were the leaders—Bradford, Marshall, Cook, Gallatin, and Brakenridge. Terms of submission were agreed to, to be ratified, however, by the votes of the people. A final convention at Parkinson's Ferry (Oct. 24, 1794) passed resolutions of submission to authority, that excise officers might safely proceed to their business, and that all excise duties would be paid. Gallatin, in the Assembly of Pennsylvania, in an able speech (December, 1794), admitted his "political sin" in the course he had taken in the insurrectionary movements. The government was strengthened by it. The cost of the insurrection to the national government was fully $1,500,000. See Excise, First.

Whiskey Ring. An association of distillers and government officials in 1872, formed to defraud the United States government revenue. Indictments were brought in 1875 against nearly 250 persons, including General Babcock, President Grant's private secretary. The government lost several millions by these frauds of the various defendants. Babcock was acquitted on trial, most of the others either pleaded guilty or were convicted, a few were non-prossed, and the three most prominent ones were pardoned in about six months after conviction. An unsuccessful attempt was made to connect President Grant with the frauds. It was in this case that he gave the memorable order, "Let no guilty man escape."

Whistler, George Washington; born in Fort Wayne, Ind., May 19, 1800; graduated at West Point in 1819, and resigned in 1833. In 1842 he built the St. Petersburg and Moscow (Russia) Railroad. He died at St. Petersburg, April 7, 1849.

Whistler, James Abbot McNeil, artist; born in Lowell, Mass., in 1834; educated at the United States Military Academy; went to Europe in 1857. He died in London, England, July 17, 1903.

Whitaker, Epher, clergyman; born in Fairfield, N. J., March 27, 1820; graduated at Delaware College in 1847; held pastorates in 1851–92; was moderator of the synod of New York and New Jersey in 1860, and of Long Island in 1871. He wrote *History of Southold, 1640–1740; The American Union of Church and State; The Growth of Suffolk County*, etc.

Whitaker, Nathaniel, clergyman, born on Long Island, N. Y., Feb. 22, 1732; graduated at Princeton College in 1752; ordained in the Congregational Church, and preached till 1761, when he visited England to procure funds for the education of American Indians. The mission met with unexpected favor, about £12,000 being contributed to the cause. The funds were applied to what was known as "Moor's Indian Charity School," which had been established in Lebanon, Conn. This school was removed to Hanover, N. H., in 1770, and received the name of Dartmouth College, in honor of Lord Dartmouth, who had contributed generously towards the promotion of the object. Dr. Whitaker formed a Presbyterian Church in Salem, Mass., of which he was pastor for a number of years; removed to Maine and later to Virginia. He died in Woodbridge, Va., Jan. 21, 1795. See Dartmouth College; Wheelock, Eleazar.

Whitaker, Walter C., military officer; born in Shelby county, Ky., in August, 1823; joined the army as a lieutenant of Kentucky volunteers at the beginning of the Mexican War, in which he served

with gallantry; admitted to the bar and began practice in Shelbyville, Ky.; was a member of the State Senate in 1861, and when his State was invaded by the Confederates during that year offered the resolution "that the governor be requested to call out the military force of the State to expel and drive out the invaders." The unanimous adoption of this resolution put an end to the sham neutrality of the State. Shortly after Whitaker entered the National army as colonel of the 6th Kentucky Infantry; was promoted brigadier-general in June, 1863; won distinction in the battles of Shiloh, Stone River, and Lookout Mountain, and in other engagements; and was brevetted major-general of volunteers in recognition of his services. He died in Lyndon, Ky., July 9, 1887.

Whitcomb, JAMES, governor; born near Windsor, Vt., Dec. 1, 1795; studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1822; began practice in Bloomington, Ind., in 1824; was governor of Indiana in 1843–49, and during his last term recruited five infantry regiments for the Mexican War. He was elected United States Senator in 1849. He died in New York City, Oct. 4, 1852. He was the author of *Facts for the People*, a pamphlet in favor of free-trade.

White, ANDREW, clergyman; born in London, England, presumably in 1579; was ordained a priest in 1605; became a Jesuit in 1609; accompanied Lord Baltimore to America in 1633; labored among the Piscataway and Patuxent Indians, and translated into the Indian language a catechism, grammar, and vocabulary. His publications include *Extracts from the Letters of Missionaries; Narrative of Travels in Maryland; Declaration to the Colonies by Lord Baltimore*. He died in London, England, Dec. 27, 1656.

White, ANDREW DICKSON, diplomatist; born in Homer, N. Y., Nov. 7, 1832; graduated at Yale College in 1853, and then studied abroad; Professor of History at the University of Michigan in 1857–64; member of the New York Senate in 1864–67, and during his last term in that body introduced a bill incorporating Cornell University; became first president of that institution in 1867, and filled the post till 1885, when he resigned owing to ill-health. He was a special United States commissioner to the republic of Santo Domingo in 1871, and commissioner to the Paris exposition in 1878; was United States minister to Germany in 1879–81, and to Russia in 1892–94. He was a member of the Venezuela boundary commission in 1896–97; was ambassador to Germany in 1897–1902; and was chairman of the American delegation to the peace conference at The Hague in 1899. He is an officer of the Legion of Honor of France. His publications in-

ANDREW DICKSON WHITE.

clude *A History of the Warfare of Science with Theology; Lectures on Mediæval and Modern History; Studies in History; Relations of the National and State Governments to Advanced Education; Message of the Nineteenth Century to the Twentieth; The Teaching of History in Our Public Schools; Seven Great Statesmen; Autobiography of Andrew Dickson White,* etc. In 1887 Mr. White founded the Andrew D. White School of History and Political Science at Cornell, personally contributing $300,000 and his historical library of over 40,000 volumes.

White, ANTHONY WALTON, military officer; born in New Brunswick, N. J., July 7, 1750; was appointed lieutenant-colonel of the 3d New Jersey Regiment in February, 1776, and was in command of cavalry in South Carolina in 1780. He and most of his command were captured at Lanneau's Ferry in May of that year. Colonel White was greatly esteemed by Washington, who in 1798 chose him as one of the brigadier-generals of the provisional army. He died in New Brunswick, N. J., Feb. 10, 1803.

White, DANIEL APPLETON, jurist; born in Methuen (now Lawrence), Mass., June 7, 1776; graduated at Harvard College in 1797; admitted to the bar in 1804; member of the legislature of Massachusetts in 1810–15; and was judge of probate of Essex county, Mass., for thirty-eight years. He was the author of *Eulogy on George Washington; View of the Court of Probate in Massachusetts; New England Congregationalism,* etc. He died in Salem, Mass., March 30, 1861.

White, EDWARD DOUGLASS, jurist, born in Laforche parish, La., Nov. 3, 1845; received a collegiate education; served in the Confederate army; admitted to the bar of Louisiana, 1868; elected a State senator, 1874; appointed an associate justice, Supreme Court of Louisiana, 1878; United States Senator, 1891–94; appointed an associate justice, United States Supreme Court, 1894, and chief-justice of that court, 1910. In 1911 he prepared the opinions of the court adverse to the Standard Oil Company and the Tobacco Trust, and established therein the RULE OF REASON (*q. v.*) as the future guide in the adjudications of the court. The same year he became a member of a special committee of the Supreme Court to revise the rules of the federal Courts of Equity. Chief-justice White is a Democrat, a Roman Catholic, and an ex-Confederate.

White, HENRY, clergyman; born in Wilbraham, Mass., Aug. 3, 1790. He was the author of *Early History of New England, Illustrated with Numerous Early Incidents.* He died in Garland, Me., Dec. 8, 1858.

White, HENRY ALEXANDER, historian; born in Greenbrier county, Va. (now West Virginia), April 15, 1861; graduated at Washington and Lee University in 1885, and studied at the Union Theological Seminary; was ordained in the Presbyterian Church in 1889; professor of history in Washington and Lee University in 1889–1902; then of Greek in Columbia Theological Seminary (S. C.). His publications include *Robert E. Lee and the Southern Confederacy; History of the United States; The Making of South Carolina; Life of "Stonewall" Jackson; Southern Presbyterian Leaders; The South in the Building of the Nation; Life of John C. Calhoun,* etc.

White, HUGH LAWSON, jurist; born in Iredell county, N. C., Oct. 30, 1773; enlisted as a private under General Sevier in 1800, and was with him when the power of the Cherokee Indians was crushed at the battle of Etowah. White is said to have decided that battle, for in the crisis of the action he shot and mortally wounded King Fisher, the leading chief, whereupon the Indians fled in all directions. White then studied law in Philadelphia, Pa., and began practice in Knoxville, Tenn.; was a judge of the Tennessee Supreme Court in 1811–17; and was elected United States Senator in 1825 and in 1831. In the convention at Baltimore, Md., May 20, 1836, when Martin Van Buren was unanimously nominated for President, Tennessee was not represented, that State having nominated Judge White for President in October of the previous year. He carried his State by nearly 10,000 majority and also received the electoral vote of Georgia. In 1840 he was placed upon the Whig ticket under the leadership of General Harrison, but owing to ill-health was not able to make the

canvass. He died in Knoxville, Tenn., April 10, 1840.

White, HENRY, diplomat; born in Baltimore, March 29, 1850; secretary of United States legation, Vienna, 1883–84; London, 1884–1905; ambassador to Italy, 1905–07; to France, 1907–09; chairman of American delegation to the fourth Pan-American Conference at Buenos Ayres in 1910.

White, HORACE, journalist; born in Colebrook, N. H., Aug. 10, 1834; connected with the Chicago *Tribune*, 1864–74, New York *Evening Post*, 1883–1903. Among his publications is *Money and Banking Illustrated by American History.*

White, JAMES, pioneer; born in Iredell county, N. C., in 1737; served in the Continental army during the Revolutionary War; received his pay in a grant of land from North Carolina which he located in 1787 on the Holston River, near the mouth of the French Broad. He here began a settlement which soon after was made the capital of the Southwest Territory. Under the name of Knoxville it became a thriving town and White acquired a fortune in selling land. In 1796, when Tennessee became a State, he was elected to its senate, and shortly after was made speaker of that body. He died in Knoxville, Tenn., in 1815.

White, JOHN, clergyman; born in Stanton, Oxfordshire, England, in 1575; educated at Oxford; was rector of Trinity Church, Dorchester, in 1606; and drew up the first charter of the Massachusetts colony. He died in Dorchester, England, July 21, 1648.

White, JOHN, clergyman; born in Watertown, Mass., in 1677; graduated at Harvard in 1698; held a pastorate in Gloucester, Mass., in 1703–60. He was the author of *New England's Lamentation for the Decay of Godliness*, and a *Funeral Sermon on John Wise.* He died in Gloucester, Mass., Jan. 17, 1760.

White, JOHN. Raleigh, undismayed by the failure of his first attempt to colonize America, fitted out another expedition. He changed his policy, and sent a colony of 89 men, 17 women, and 2 children to establish an agricultural state. John White was appointed their governor. They sailed on the 26th of April, 1587, and arrived on the coast of North Carolina in July. When they reached Roanoke, the site of the first colony, they found no vestige of the fifteen men left by Grenville, except a few scattered bones. The Indians had slain them all. Wild deer were in the untenanted habitations, and rank grass covered their gardens. They proceeded to lay the foundation of "the city of Raleigh," pursuant to the instructions of the proprietor, but it was an idle show. White endeavored to make treaties of amity with the natives, but failed, though aided by the friendly Manteo, who accompanied Amidas and Barlow to England. The neighboring tribes exhibited implacable hatred and jealousy. Winter approached, and the vessel which brought them was prepared for departure for England. White was urged strongly to go with it, and use his endeavors to send them immediate relief, for they had neither planted nor reaped, and to England alone they looked for supplies. He was unwilling to appear as a deserter of his colony, and refused. He had another tie. His daughter, Eleanor Dare, had given birth to a child, the first offspring of English parents in the New World. Little Virginia Dare twined the tendrils of affection close around the heart of her grandparent, and he lingered. He at length consented to go, leaving his daughter and child as pledges that he would return. Very long the poor colonists waited for relief. Three years passed away before White returned, and then he found the settlement a desolation. There were evidences upon the bark of a tree that the people had departed for Croatan, the residence of Manteo; but the season was far advanced, and search was abandoned. White put to sea without intelligence of the fate of his daughter and child, and returned to England. Five separate times Raleigh sent a vessel with trusty men to search for his colony. He then abandoned all ideas of settlement in America. Virginia, then including in its indefinite boundaries all of North Carolina, remained untouched by the English for twenty years. These attempts at settlement form a wonderful chapter of adventure and moral heroism in the history of the world.

White, JOHN, jurist; born in Kentucky in 1805; received an academic education;

admitted to the bar and began practice in Richmond, Ky.; member of Congress in 1835–45 and was speaker in 1841–43; and was appointed judge of the 19th District of Kentucky in March, 1845. He died in Richmond, Ky., Sept. 22, 1845.

White, JOHN, military officer; born in England; was a surgeon in the British army; settled in Philadelphia, and after the outbreak of the Revolutionary War joined the Continental army as captain; and became colonel of the 4th Georgia Battalion. It is reported that at the siege of Savannah he captured by strategy Captain French and 111 regulars about 25 miles from Savannah on the Ogeechee River, and also forty sailors, and 130 stands of arms. He was wounded during the attack on Spring Hill, Oct. 9, 1779. It is supposed he died in Virginia in 1780.

White, JOHN BLAKE, artist; born near Eutaw Springs, S. C., Sept. 2, 1781; studied art abroad in 1800–4; returned to the United States and began work in Boston, but not attaining anticipated success went to Charleston, S. C., where he was admitted to the bar. He achieved success in the law and was many times a member of the South Carolina legislature. His paintings include *Battle of Eutaw Springs; Battle of Fort Moultrie; Battle of New Orleans; Marion Inviting the British Officer to Dinner;* and *Mrs. Motte Presenting the Arrows.* He was elected a member of the National Academy of Design in 1847. His publications include *Triumph of Liberty, or Louisiana Preserved,* and several dramas. He died in Charleston, S. C., Aug. 24, 1859.

White, PEREGRINE, pioneer; the first child of English parents born in New England; born on the *Mayflower* while she lay in Cape Cod Bay, Nov. 20, 1620; son of William and Susanna White. He occupied numerous civil and military offices in the colony, and died in Marshfield, Mass., July 22, 1704.

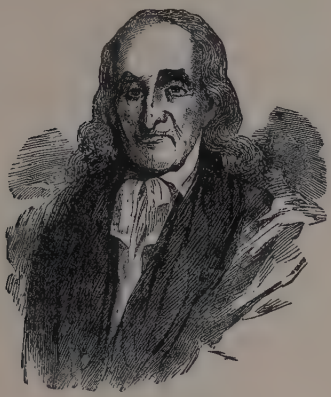
White, RICHARD GRANT, journalist; born in New York City, May 22, 1822; graduated at the University of the City of New York in 1839; studied both law and medicine, and was admitted to the bar in 1845. He soon afterwards devoted himself entirely to newspaper and literary work, and especially to the study of languages. He was a frequent contributor to the *Galaxy* and the *Atlantic Monthly;* and wrote *National Hymns, a Lyrical and National Study for the Times; The American View of the Copyright Question; Poetry of the Civil War,* etc. He died in New York City, Aug. 8, 1885.

White, STANFORD, architect; born in New York, Nov. 9, 1853; educated at the University of the City of New York; studied architecture; was chief assistant of the late Henry H. Richardson in the construction of Trinity Church, Boston; and since 1881 has been a member of the firm of McKim, Mead & White, in New York City. He designed Madison Square Garden, the new University of the City of New York, the Washington Centennial Arch in New York City, the University of Virginia; and the pedestals of St. Gaudens's principal statues. He died June 25, 1906.

White, TRUMBULL, journalist; born in Winterset, Ia., Aug. 12, 1868; received a collegiate education; was engaged in journalism, principally on Chicago daily papers, in 1889–94; travelled in Europe and Mexico in 1894–96; accompanied the Cuban and Porto Rico expeditions in charge of the Chicago *Record's* news service; visited Hawaii, Samoa, New Zealand, and Australia in 1897–98 for the same paper; and later was its correspondent in Russia. He is the author of *Wizard of Wall Street; Free Silver in Mexico* (with William E. Curtis); *Our War with Spain; Our New Possessions; Through Darkest America,* etc.

White, WILLIAM, clergyman; born in Philadelphia, Pa., April 4, 1748; graduated at Philadelphia College in 1765; studied theology, and was admitted to priest's orders in England in April, 1772. Returning to Philadelphia, he became assistant minister of Christ Church and St. Peter's, and in April, 1779, was chosen rector of those churches. He was elected chaplain to Congress at York, Pa., in 1778. Dr. White presided at the first convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church in America in 1785, and the constitution of that Church was written by him. The diocese of Pennsylvania elected him bishop in 1786, and he was consecrated by the Archbishop of Canterbury, Feb. 4, 1787, returning to Philadelphia on Easter Day. Bishop White was very active in the Church and in society. He

was president of the Philadelphia Bible Society, of the Dispensary, of the Prison Society, and of the societies for the benefit of the deaf and dumb and the blind.



WILLIAM WHITE.

He published *Memoirs of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States.* He died in Philadelphia, Pa., July 17, 1836.

White Camelia, KNIGHTS OF THE, one of the names of the KU-KLUX KLAN (*q. v.*).

White Caps, the name of a number of organizations in the United States composed of persons who committed illegal acts while pretending to protect the community in which they live. See KU-KLUX KLAN.

White House. THE, in Washington, D. C., the residence of the President of the United States. The building is architecturally attractive, being a model of the palace of the Duke of Leinster in Ireland. It is constructed of sandstone; is two stories high, with a colonnade of eight Ionic columns in front and a semicircular portico in the rear; and derives its name from the fact that the exterior is painted white. The corner-stone was laid in 1792; the building was first occupied by President Adams in 1800, who held the first New Year's reception in it on Jan. 1, 1801; was burned by the British in 1814; was restored in 1818; and was enlarged in 1902 and 1909 by the construction of annexes containing numerous rooms to facilitate the despatch of the President's business. The front door is on the north side of the building, and opens from a pillared private portion of the house. The great East Room occupies one end of the building, and is 80 feet long by 40 feet wide with a ceiling 22 feet high. Life-sized portraits of the Father of his country and Martha Washington adorn the walls, which are decorated in white and gold. There are two mirrors in panels and over the mantels. Two doors open to the west, the one into the red corridor, which runs at right angles to the East Room, and the other into the Green Room —the first of the suite of parlors known as the Green, Blue, and Red rooms—on the south side of the house. Each room measures about 30 x 20 feet. The red corridor is lighted from the glass screen seen on entering; it communicates with the drawing-rooms, and also with the state and private dining-rooms, and with the conservatory on the west. There is a private stairway and an elevator in this end of the house. It is in these rooms that the President and his wife, assisted by the ladies of the cabinet, hold the New Year's receptions.

White House, THE a former estate on the Pamunkey River in Virginia, and an important point in the Civil War operations against Richmond. Before the battle at Williamsburg (May 5, 1862) General Franklin was ordered, with a force from Yorktown, to flank the Confederates, but it was detained so long that it failed to effect its purpose. On the day of the battle it moved, and arrived at the head of the York River that night, and the next day some Nationals encountered Johnston's rear-guard in the woods. After a conflict of three or four hours the Confederates were defeated. In this affair the Nationals lost 194 men, mostly New-Yorkers; the loss of the Confederates was small. Near the White House—the estate that belonged to Mrs. Washington, on the Pamunkey, one of the streams that form the York River—Franklin was enabled to establish a permanent and important base of supplies for McClellan's army. The main army, meanwhile, moved up the Peninsula, and the general-in-chief and the advance of the main army arrived at the White House, about 18 miles from Richmond, on May 16. The wife of Gen. Robert E. Lee was a granddaughter of Mrs. Washington and owner of the

White House estate. She was there, with a part of her family, when the Nationals approached, and fled towards Richmond, but was brought back. Under the impression that this was the house in which Washington resided a while after his marriage, it was carefully guarded as a pious relic of the Father of his Country; but when it was found that *the* white house sanctified by the presence of Washington had been burned more than thirty years before, all reverence for it was dismissed.

White League. The aspect of affairs in several of the Southern States, particularly in Louisiana, was so unsettled in 1874 that there was much uneasiness in the public mind. Outrages of various kinds and murders were committed for the alleged purpose of keeping peaceable citizens from the polls, and an utter disregard for law was reported in many districts. In September, when these outrages were increasing in number and violence, the United States Attorney-General, with the sanction of the President, issued a circular letter to the authorities in the States affected, expressing his determination to take vigorous steps for upholding the laws and protecting the rights of all citizens of whatever class or hue; and the President directed the Secretary of War to consult and act with the Attorney-General in the matter. By vigorous action these disturbances were almost suppressed at the beginning of 1875; but they broke out with more violence in the summer of 1876, and appeared in increased strength during the canvass for President and Vice-President that year. The leaders and inciters of these outrages were members of a secret organization, alleged to be The White League, formed for the widely indicated purpose of depriving the colored citizens of the elective franchise.

The following is General Sheridan's report, together with an extract from President Grant's special message to Congress:

NEW ORLEANS, *Jan. 10, 1875.*

Hon. W. W. Belknap, Secretary of War:

Since the year 1866, nearly 3,500 persons, a great majority of whom were colored men, have been killed and wounded in this State. In 1868 the official record shows that 1,884 were killed and wounded. From 1868 to the present time no official investigation has been made, and the civil authorities in all but a few cases have been unable to arrest, convict, and punish perpetrators. Consequently, there are no correct records to be consulted for information. There is ample evidence, however, to show that more than 1,200 persons have been killed and wounded during this time, on account of their political sentiments. Frightful massacres have occurred in the parishes of Bossier, Caddo, Catahoula, Saint Bernard, Saint Landry, Grant, and Orleans. The general character of the massacres in the above-named parishes is so well known that it is unnecessary to describe them. The isolated cases can best be illustrated by the following instances which I have taken from a mass of evidence now lying before me of men killed on account of their political principles. In Natchitoches parish the number of isolated cases reported is thirty-three. In the parish of Bienville the number of men killed is thirty. In Red River parish the number of isolated cases of men killed is thirty-four. In Winn parish the number of isolated cases where men were killed is fifteen. In Jackson parish the number killed is twenty; and in Catahoula parish the number of isolated cases reported where men were killed is fifty; and most of the country parishes throughout the State will show a corresponding state of affairs. The following statement will illustrate the character and kind of these outrages. On Aug. 29, 1874, in Red River parish, six State and parish officers, named Twitchell, Divers, Holland, Howell, Edgerton, and Willis, were taken, together with four negroes, under guard, to be carried out of the State, and were deliberately murdered on Aug. 30, 1874. The White League tried, sentenced, and hanged two negroes on Aug. 28, 1874. Three negroes were shot and killed at Brownsville, just before the arrival of the United States troops in the parish. Two White Leaguers rode up to a negro cabin and called for a drink of water. When the old colored man turned to draw it, they shot him in the back and killed him. The courts were all broken up in this district, and the district judge driven out.

THE WHITE HOUSE

In the parish of Caddo, prior to the arrival of the United States troops, all of the officers at Shreveport were compelled to abdicate by the White League, which took possession of the place. Among those obliged to abdicate were Walsh, the mayor, Rapers, the sheriff, Wheaton, clerk of the court, Durant, the recorder, and Ferguson and Renfro, administrators. Two colored men, who had given evidence in regard to frauds committed in the parish, were compelled to flee for their lives, and reached this city last night, having been smuggled through in a cargo of cotton. In the parish of Bossier the White League have attempted to force the abdication of Judge Baker, the United States commissioner and parish judge, together with O'Neal, the sheriff, and Walker, the clerk of the court; and they have compelled the parish and district courts to suspend operations. Judge Baker states that the White Leaguers notified him several times that if he became a candidate on the Republican ticket, or if he attempted to organize the Republican party, he should not live until election.

They also tried to intimidate him through his family by making the same threats to his wife, and when told by him that he was a United States commissioner, they notified him not to attempt to exercise the functions of his office. In but few of the country parishes can it be truly said that the law is properly enforced, and in some of the parishes the judges have not been able to hold court for the past two years. Human life in this State is held so cheaply that, when men are killed on account of political opinions, the murderers are regarded rather as heroes than as criminals in the localities where they reside and by the White League and their supporters. An illustration of the ostracism that prevails in the State may be found in a resolution of a White League club in the parish of De Soto, which states, "That they pledge themselves under (no?) circumstances after the coming election to employ, rent land to, or in any other manner give aid, comfort, or credit, to any man, white or black, who votes against the nominees of the white man's party." Safety for individuals who express their opinion in the isolated portion of this State has existed only when that opinion was in favor of the principles and party supported by the Ku - klux and White League organizations. Only yesterday Judge Myers, the parish judge of the parish of Natchitoches, called on me upon his arrival in this city, and stated that in order to reach here alive, he was obliged to leave his home by stealth, and after nightfall, and make his way to Little Rock, Ark., and come to this city by way of Memphis, Tenn. He further states that while his father was lying at the point of death in the same village, he was unable to visit him for fear of assassination; and yet he is a native of the parish, and proscribed for his political sentiments only. It is more than probable that if bad government has existed in this State it is the result of the armed organizations, which have now crystallized into what is called the White League; instead of bad government developing them, they have by their terrorism prevented to a considerable extent the collection of taxes, the holding of courts, the punishment of criminals, and vitiated public sentiment by familiarizing it with the scenes above described. I am now engaged in compiling evidence for a detailed report upon the above subject, but it will be some time before I can obtain all the requisite data to cover the cases that have occurred throughout the State. I will also report in due time upon the same subject in the States of Arkansas and Mississippi.

P. H. SHERIDAN,
Lieutenant-General.

President Grant said in a special message to Congress, Jan. 13, 1875:

"It has been bitterly and persistently alleged that Kellogg was not elected. Whether he was or not is not altogether certain, nor is it any more certain that his competitor, McEnery, was chosen. The election was a gigantic fraud, and there are no reliable returns of its result. Kellogg obtained possession of the office, and in my opinion has more right to it than his competitor.

"On Feb. 20, 1873, the committee on privileges and elections of the Senate made a report, in which they say they were satisfied by testimony that the manipulation of the election machinery by War-

moth and others was equivalent to 20,000 votes; and they add, to recognize the McEnery government 'would be recognizing a government based upon fraud, in defiance of the wishes and intention of the voters of the State.' Assuming the correctness of the statements in this report (and they seem to have been generally accepted by the country), the great crime in Louisiana, about which so much has been said, is, that one is holding the office of governor who was cheated out of 20,000 votes, against another whose title to the office is undoubtedly based on fraud, and in defiance of the wishes and intentions of the voters of the State.

"Misinformed and misjudging as to the nature and extent of this report, the supporters of McEnery proceeded to displace by force in some counties of the State the appointees of Governor Kellogg; and on April 13, in an effort of that kind, a butchery of citizens was committed at Colfax, which in bloodthirstiness and barbarity is hardly surpassed by any acts of savage warfare.

"To put this matter beyond controversy, I quote from the charge of Judge Woods, of the United States circuit court, to the jury in the case of the United States *vs.* Cruikshank and others, in New Orleans, in March, 1874. He said:

"'In the case on trial there are many facts not in controversy. I proceed to state some of them in the presence and hearing of counsel on both sides; and if I state as a conceded fact any matter that is disputed, they can correct me.'

"After stating the origin of the difficulty, which grew out of an attempt of white persons to drive the parish judge and sheriff, appointees of Kellogg, from office, and their attempted protection by colored persons, which led to some fighting in which quite a number of negroes were killed, the judge states:

"'Most of those who were not killed were taken prisoners. Fifteen or sixteen of the blacks had lifted the boards and taken refuge under the floor of the court-house. They were all captured. About thirty-seven men were taken prisoners; the number is not definitely fixed. They were kept under guard until dark. They were led out, two by two, and shot. Most of the men were shot to death. A few were wounded, not mortally, and by pretending to be dead were afterwards, during the night, able to make their escape. Among them was the Levi Nelson named in the indictment.

"'The dead bodies of the negroes killed in this affair were left unburied until Tuesday, April 15, when they were buried by a deputy-marshal and an officer of the militia from New Orleans. These persons found fifty-nine dead bodies. They showed pistol-shot wounds, the great majority in the head, and most of them in the back of the head. In addition to the fifty-nine dead bodies found, some charred remains of dead bodies were discovered near the court-house. Six dead bodies were found under a warehouse, all shot in the head but one or two, which were shot in the breast.

"'The only white men injured from the beginning of these troubles to their close were Hadnot and Harris. The court-house and its contents were entirely consumed.

"'There is no evidence that any one in the crowd of whites bore any lawful warrant for the arrest of any of the blacks. There is no evidence that either Nash or Cazabat, after the affair, ever demanded their offices, to which they had set up claim, but Register continued to act as parish judge, and Shaw as sheriff.

"'These are facts in this case, as I understand them to be admitted.'

"To hold the people of Louisiana generally responsible for these atrocities would not be just; but it is a lamentable fact that insuperable obstructions were thrown in the way of punishing these murderers, and the so-called conservative papers of the State not only justified the massacre, but denounced as federal tyranny and despotism the attempt of the United States officers to bring them to justice. Fierce denunciations ring through the country about office-holding and election matters in Louisiana, while every one of the Colfax miscreants goes unwhipped of justice, and no way can be found in this boasted land of civilization and Christianity to punish the perpetrators of this bloody and monstrous crime.

"Not unlike this was the massacre in August last. Several Northern young men of capital and enterprise had started the little and flourishing town of Coushatta. Some of them were Republicans and office-

holders under Kellogg. They were therefore doomed to death. Six of them were seized and carried away from their homes and murdered in cold blood. No one has been punished; and the conservative press of the State denounced all efforts to that end, and boldly justified the crime."

The House on March 1, 1875, by a strict party vote, 155 Republicans to 86 Democrats, recognized the Kellogg government. The Senate did the same on March 5, by 33 to 23, also a party vote.

White Mountains, in New Hampshire, covering 1,300 square miles in several short ranges. In the Presidential range tower the peaks of Mounts Washington, 6,286 feet; Adams, 5,819; Jefferson, 5,736; Madison, 5,381; Monroe, 5,396; Jackson, and others. They were called *Waumbek Methna* by the Indians, a name adopted by Whittier in his ballad of *Mary Garvin.*

Mount Washington has a carriage-road ascending its rocky slope to the summit. The first cog-rail mountain railway in the world was built to the summit in 1868–69, rising 3,730 feet in less than 3 miles, the steepest grade being 1 to 3.

White Pass, a pass over the coast range of Alaska, about 10 miles s. of Chilkoot Pass. It was first regularly used in 1897 by travellers to the Klondike. The altitude is about 3,500 feet. See CHILKOOT.

White Plains, BATTLE AT. General Howe dared not attack the intrenched American camp on Harlem Heights, so he attempted to gain the rear of Washington's army, and hem them in on the upper part of Manhattan Island. To do this he landed a considerable force at Throgg's Point, Westchester county, and sent armed ships up the Hudson to cut off supplies for the Americans by water from the north and west. Perceiving the gathering of danger, Washington called a council of war at his headquarters on Harlem Heights, which was the deserted mansion of Roger Morris, who married Mary Phillipse (see WASHINGTON, GEORGE). Morris had espoused the cause of the crown, and fled from his mansion with his family.

WASHINGTON'S HEADQUARTERS AT WHITE PLAINS.

THE MORRIS HOUSE.

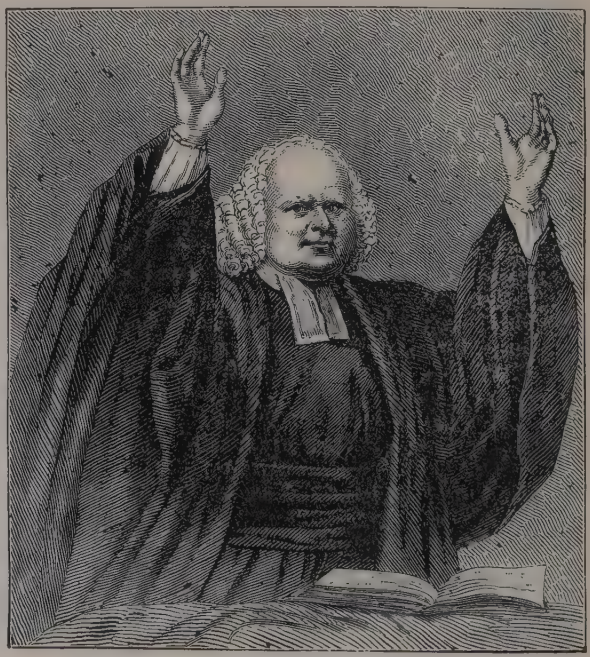
At that council, held Oct. 16, 1776, it was determined to extend the army beyond the King's Bridge into Westchester county, abandoning the island, excepting the strong work known as Fort Washington, on the highest point of the island. Arranged in four divisions, under Generals Lee, Heath, Sullivan, and Lincoln, the army concentrated at the village of White Plains, and formed an intrenched camp. The two armies were each about 13,000 strong. On the morning of Oct. 28, after a series of skirmishes, 1,600 men from Delaware and Maryland had taken post on Chatterton's Hill, a lofty eminence west of the Bronx River, and to these General McDougall led reinforcements, with two pieces of cannon under Capt. Alexander Hamilton, and took the chief command there. Washington, with the rest of the army, was on the lower ground just north of the village.

The British army advanced to the attack in two divisions, the right led by Sir Henry Clinton and the left by Generals De Heister and Erskine. Howe was with the latter. He had moved with great caution since his landing. Inclining his army to the left, he planted almost twenty

CHATTERTON'S HILL, FROM THE RAILWAY STATION.

field-pieces on the slope south of the village, and under cover of these a bridge was constructed, and British and German troops passed the Bronx and attacked the Americans on Chatterton's Hill. Hamilton's little battery made them recoil at first, but, being reinforced, they drove the Americans from their position. McDougall led his troops to Washington's camp, leaving the British in possession of the hill. Washington's breastworks were composed of corn-stalks covered rather hastily and lightly by earth; but they appeared so formidable that Howe dared not attack them, but waited for reinforcements. Just as they appeared a severe storm of wind and rain set in. Washington perceiving Howe's advantage, withdrew under cover of darkness, in the night of Oct. 31, behind intrenchments on the hills of North Castle, towards the Croton River. Howe did not follow; but, falling back, encamped on the heights of Fordham. The loss of the Americans in the skirmishes on Oct. 26, and the battle on the 28th, did not exceed, probably, 300 men in killed, wounded, and prisoners; that of the British was about the same.

Whitefield, GEORGE, clergyman; born in Gloucester, England, Dec. 16, 1714; was a religious enthusiast in very early life, fasting twice a week for thirty-six hours, and at the age of eighteen became a member of the club in which the denomination of Methodists took its rise. He became intimately associated in religious matters with John and Charles Wesley. In 1736 he was ordained deacon, and preached with such extraordinary effect the next Sunday that a complaint was made that he had driven fifteen persons mad. The same year the Wesleys accompanied Oglethorpe to Georgia, and in 1737 John Wesley invited Whitefield to join him in his work in America. He came in May, 1738; and after



GEORGE WHITEFIELD.

laboring four months, and perfecting plans for founding an orphan-house at Savannah, he returned to England to receive priest's orders and to collect funds for carrying out his benevolent plans. With more than $5,000 collected he returned to Savannah, and there founded an orphan-house and school, laying the first brick himself for the building, March 25, 1740. He named it "Bethesda"—a house of mercy. It afterwards became eminently useful.

Mr. Whitefield was early accustomed to preach to large congregations assembled in the open air. He travelled and preached much in America. On Boston Common he addressed 20,000 people at one time, and was distinctly heard by all. Independent in his theology, he did not entirely agree with anybody. Although he was active in the establishment of the Methodist denomination, he disagreed with Wesley on points of doctrine, and was finally an evangelist without the discipline of any denomination. Whitefield crossed the Atlantic many times, and made tours in America from Georgia to New Hampshire. In September, 1769, he started on his seventh tour there, and the day before his death he preached two hours at Exeter, N. H., and the same evening addressed a crowd in the open air at Newburyport. He died of asthma the next day in Newburyport, Mass., Sept. 30, 1770, and was buried under the pulpit of the Federal Street Church in that town.

Whitehead, William Adee, historian; born in Newark, N. J., Feb. 19, 1810; became a surveyor and made a survey of Key West, Fla., in 1828; was United States customs collector there in 1830–38; then removed to New York and became a stock-broker. He was one of the founders of the Newark Library Association and was corresponding secretary of the New Jersey Historical Society from its establishment in 1845 till his death. He was the author of *East Jersey Under the Proprietary Governments; Papers of Lewis Morris, Governor of New Jersey; Analytical Index to the Colonial Documents of New Jersey, in the State Paper Office in England; Biographical Sketch of William Franklin; Contributions to the Early History of Perth Amboy,* etc. He died in Perth Amboy, N. J., Aug. 8, 1884.

Whitehouse, James Horton, designer; born in Staffordshire, England, Oct. 28, 1833; came to the United States and settled in New York. He designed the vase presented to William Cullen Bryant, and other notable artistic productions in silver. He died in 1902.

Whitehouse, Robert Treat, lawyer; born in Augusta, Me., March 27, 1870; graduated at Harvard University in 1891, and at Harvard Law School in 1893; was admitted to the bar in the same year; attorney for Cumberland county, Me., in 1900; United States District Attorney from 1906. He is the author of *Pleading and Practice in Maine;* and *Constitutional, Judicial, and Commercial Histories of Maine.*

Whiteside, Peter, patriot; born in Puten, England, in 1752; settled in Philadelphia, where he became a prosperous merchant; advanced much of his wealth during the Revolutionary War to provide shoes for the American soldiers; and was sent by Washington to France to arrange for better trading facilities with the American colonies. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., in December, 1828.

White Slave Traffic. Supplementing the efforts of States, municipalities, and various influential organizations to mitigate the horrors of the immoral traffic in young women and girls, Congress passed an act (approved June 25, 1910) providing severe penalties for persons engaged in such operations, so far as interstate or foreign commerce is concerned—the limit of its authority.

Whitfield, Henry, clergyman; born in England in 1597; emigrated to New England and settled in New Haven in 1637; was one of the founders of Guilford, Conn., in 1639. He returned to England in 1650, and was minister in Winchester, where he died in 1658. He wrote *A Farther Discovery of the Present State of the Indians in New England,* etc.

Whiting, Henry, military officer; born in Lancaster, Mass., about 1790; joined the army in 1808; promoted first lieutenant in 1811; was placed on the staff of Gen. John P. Boyd, and afterwards on that of Gen. Alexander Macomb; promoted captain in 1817; was chief quartermaster of the army of General Taylor during the Mexican War; won distinction at Buena

Vista, in recognition of which he was brevetted brigadier-general, United States army, Feb. 23, 1847. His publications include *Ontway, the Son of the Forest* (a poem); *Life of Zebulon M. Pike,* in Sparks's *American Biography;* joint author of *Historical and Scientific Sketches of Michigan,* etc.; and editor of *Washington's Revolutionary Orders Issued During the Years 1778, 1780, 1781, and 1782, Selected from the MSS. of John Whiting.* He died in St. Louis, Mo., Sept. 16, 1851.

Whiting, NATHAN, military officer; born in Windham, Conn., May 4, 1724; graduated at Yale College in 1743; became a merchant in New Haven in 1745; appointed lieutenant-colonel of the 2d Connecticut Regiment at the outbreak of the French and Indian War in 1755; was with Col. Ephraim Williams when that officer was surprised by the French and Indians, and upon his death retreated with great coolness and skill; promoted colonel in 1756 and served to the close of the war. He died in New Haven, Conn., April 9, 1771.

Whiting, WILLIAM HENRY CHASE, military officer; born in Mississippi about 1825; graduated at West Point in 1845, entered the engineer corps, and in February, 1861, left the National army and entered the Confederate service, as chief engineer with the rank of major, in the Army of the Shenadoah, under Gen. Joseph E. Johnston. He built Fort Fisher, at the mouth of the Cape Fear River; was in command during both attacks upon it; was severely wounded in its defense; and died of his wounds on Governor's Island, N. Y., March 10, 1865.

Whitlock, BRAND, diplomat; born in Urbana, O., March 4, 1869; acquired a public-school education; engaged in journalism; was admitted to the bar of Illinois in 1894, and of Ohio in 1897; settled in Toledo, O., to practise in 1897; elected mayor in 1905; re-elected three times; appointed minister to Belgium, Dec. 2, 1913. What was considered a minor post proved to be an unusually important one, from the very beginning of the European war in 1914. After the Germans had violated the neutrality and integrity of Belgium by their dash through it into France, the kingdom was declared a German province. The Belgian government removed to Antwerp, and the British, French, and Russian representatives followed, but those of the United States, Spain, and seventeen other neutral Powers remained in Brussels. There Minister Whitlock had placed under his protection various German interests, the British Legation, and a large resident British colony. The disinterested position of the United States enabled him to render services of incalculable worth during the early days of panic and the succeeding ones of misery.

Whitman, MARCUS, pioneer; born in Rushville, N. Y., Sept. 4, 1802; studied medicine, and was made a medical missionary to Oregon by the American board in 1834. After living in Oregon a number of years he discovered that the English were discouraging American emigrants from settling there, and were colonizing it with English settlers. Late in 1842 he set out for Washington, D. C., and arriving there in March, 1843, gave the government valuable information which led to extensive colonization on the part of Americans, and in all probability kept Oregon from falling into the hands of the British. He, his wife, two adopted children, and ten others were killed by the Indians in Waülatpu, Or., Nov. 29, 1847.

Whitman, WALT, poet; born in West Hills, Long Island, N. Y., May 31, 1819; received a public school education; learned the printer's trade; taught school for a time; and later learned the carpenter's trade. During the Civil War he was a nurse in the Federal military hospitals; and was a government clerk in 1865–73. He was editor of the Brooklyn *Daily Eagle;* a contributor to the *Democratic Review;* established *The Freedman* in 1850; and wrote *Drum Taps; Leaves of Grass,* etc. He died in Camden, N. J., March 26, 1892.

Whitmer, DAVID, Mormon; born in Harrisburg, Pa., Jan. 7, 1805; became a farmer in Ontario county, N. Y., in 1829. In June of that year he, together with Oliver Cowdery and Joseph Smith, went into a woods near his home to investigate the alleged discovery of the golden plates of the *Book of Mormon.* While praying in a quiet place these men claimed a bright light shone around them and an angel appeared with seven golden plates which they were commanded to examine. They were, moreover, enjoined to tell their

experience to the world. This they did in a statement appended to the *Book of Mormon*, where it is written that they, "through the grace of God and our Lord Jesus Christ, have seen the plates which contain this record, which is the record of the people of Nephi." Mr. Whitmer withdrew from the Mormon Church in June, 1838, and removed to Richmond, Mo. His reasons for leaving that body are contained in a publication entitled *An Address to all Believers in Christ*. These include, the creation of high priests in 1831; the making public of many revelations; the formation of a congregation of Danites in the Far West in 1838; the doctrine of polygamy, etc. He died in Richmond, Mo., Jan. 25, 1888. See MORMONS.

Whitmore, WILLIAM HENRY, genealogist; born in Dorchester, Mass., Sept. 6, 1836; received a public school education, and engaged in business, devoting his spare time to historical research. His publications include *The American Genealogist; Massachusetts Civil List, 1636–1774; Copp's Hill Epitaphs; History of the Old State House*, etc. He also prepared the *Laws of Adoption; Revision of the City Ordinances; Report of the State Seal;* etc. He died in 1900.

Whitney, ADDISON O., soldier; born in Waldo, Me., Oct. 30, 1839; became a mechanic in Lowell, Mass.; and joined the 6th Massachusetts Volunteer Militia. He accompanied the regiment on its march to the defence of the national capital, and while passing through Baltimore, Md., April 19, 1861, was killed during the attack on the regiment by the mob. LUTHER C. LADD (born in Alexandria, N. H., Dec. 22, 1843), also a mechanic in Lowell and a comrade of Whitney, fell in the same attack, pierced by several bullets. These were the first casualties in the National army in the Civil War. The commonwealth of Massachusetts and the city of Lowell caused the remains of the two "first martyrs" to be placed beneath an imposing monument of Concord granite, erected in Merrimac Square, Lowell, and dedicated June 17, 1865.

Whitney, ANNE, sculptor; born in Watertown, Mass., in September, 1821; received a private school education; wrote a number of poems which were collected in one volume; studied art in Europe for four years; and established herself in Boston in 1872. Among her works are statues of Samuel Adams, Lief Erikson, etc., and busts of Ethiopia, Roma, etc.

Whitney, EDWARD BALDWIN, lawyer; born in New Haven, Conn., Aug. 16, 1857; graduated at Yale University in 1878; admitted to the bar in 1880; was assistant Attorney-General of the United States in 1893–97, in which capacity he participated in the argument on the income-tax case, the Debs trial, etc. In 1898 he secured the first decision against a manufacturing monopoly under the federal anti-trust law, in the trial of the Cast-Iron Pipe Trust. He is the author of *The Advice and Consent of the Senate; Commercial Retaliation Between the States; Reciprocity Legislation; Income-Tax Decision; Federal Judges and Quasi Judges*, etc.

Whitney, ELI, inventor; born in Westboro, Mass., Dec. 8, 1765; graduated at Yale College in 1792; obtained a collegiate education largely by the earnings of his own hands. In the year of his graduation he went to Georgia, became an inmate of the family of Mrs. General Greene, and there invented his cotton-gin, which gave a wonderful impulse to the cultivation of the cotton-plant, rendering it an enormous item in the foreign and domestic commerce of the United States.

The seeds of the cotton raised in the United States adhered so firmly to the fibre that it was difficult to separate them from it. The seeds were separated from the cotton-wool by the slow process of picking by hand, which was chiefly done by negro women and children. The separation of one pound of the wool from the seeds was regarded as a good day's work for one woman. So limited was the production on account of the labor that even high prices did not stimulate its cultivation, and the entire cotton crop in the United States in 1791 was only about 2,000,000 pounds. The following year Whitney accepted an invitation to teach the children of a Georgia planter. He arrived there too late, and the widow of General Greene, living near, gave the young stranger a home in her house. He displayed much inventive genius, which Mrs. Greene encouraged.

One day some gentlemen at her table expressed a regret that there was no machine by which the cotton-wool could be readily separated from the seed. "Apply to my young friend here," said Mrs. Greene; "he can make anything." Whitney had then never seen a cotton-seed with wool adhering. He was furnished with some. With rude plantation tools he constructed a machine that performed the work. This was the origin of the saw-gin, which, with some improvements, is universally used on American plantations. Some of Mrs. Greene's neighbors were called in to see the working of it. They were astonished and delighted. Phineas Miller, a college-mate of Whitney, had come to Georgia, and soon became the second husband of Mrs. Greene. Having some money, he formed a copartnership with Whitney in the manufacture of gins. The machine was locked from public view until a patent could be procured. Planters came from all parts of South Carolina and Georgia to see the wonderful machine which could do the work in a day of 1,000 women. The workshop of the inventor was broken into and the model was carried off. Imperfect machines were made by common mechanics, which injured the fibre and defamed the machine for a while.

ELI WHITNEY.

The gin was patented (1793) before any were made. The violators of the patent were prosecuted, but packed juries gave sweeping verdicts against the owners. Even State legislatures broke their bargains with them, or, like South Carolina, long delayed to fulfil them; and when, in 1812, Whitney asked Congress for an extension of his patent, the members from the cotton-growing States, whose constituents had been enriched by the invention, vehemently opposed the prayer of the petitioner, and it was denied. Thenceforth those who had wronged Whitney, in defiance of law and justice, were permitted to continue the wrong under the protection of law. The immediate influence of Whitney's cotton-gin upon the dying institution of slavery was most remarkable. It played an important part in the social, commercial, and political history of the country for seventy years. The increased production of cotton made an enormous demand for slave-labor in the preparation of the soil, the ingathering of the harvest, and the preparation of it for market. Its effects upon the industrial pursuits of nearly one-half the nation were marvellous. Such, also, were its effects upon the moral and intellectual condition of the people in the cotton-growing States. Before 1808 (after which time the national Constitution prohibited the prosecution of the African slave-trade) enormous numbers of slaves were brought to the country. The institution had been unprofitable, and was dying. The cotton-gin revived it,

made it strong and powerful, and cotton, its representative, assumed to be king of the nation, and for fifty years swayed an imperial sceptre, almost unchallenged. Eli Whitney, a Yankee school-master, built the throne of King Cotton, but was denied his just wages by the subjects of the monarch. The legislature of South Carolina voted him $50,000, which, after vexatious delays and lawsuits, was finally paid. North Carolina allowed him a percentage for the use of the gin for five years. Congress having refused to renew his patent, he engaged in the manufacture of firearms for the government during the War of 1812–15, and finally gained a fortune. He died in New Haven, Conn., Jan. 8, 1825.

Whitney, FREDERIC AUGUSTUS, clergyman; born in Quincy, Mass., Sept. 13, 1812; graduated at Harvard College in 1833 and at its Divinity School in 1838; was pastor at Brighton, Mass., in 1843–59. He was the author of *Historical Sketch of the Old Church at Quincy; Biography of James Holton,* etc. He died in Brighton, Mass., Oct. 21, 1880.

Whitney, HENRY CLAY, lawyer; born in Detroit, Me., Feb. 23, 1831; received a collegiate education; became intimately acquainted with Abraham Lincoln in 1854; and was paymaster in the United States army in 1861–65. He is the author of *Life on the Circuit with Lincoln; Lincoln's Last Speech,* etc. He died in Salem, Mass., Feb. 27, 1905.

Whitney, HENRY HOWARD, military officer; born in Glen Hope, Pa., Dec. 25, 1866; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1892 and was assigned to the 4th Artillery as first lieutenant. In 1898, under the guise of an English sailor, he made a military reconnoissance of Porto Rico and gained information which General Miles made the basis of his campaign against that island. He was captain and assistant adjutant-general on the staff of General Miles during the war with Spain; was afterwards promoted lieutenant-colonel and became aide-de-camp to Lieutenant-General Miles.

Whitney, JAMES LYMAN, librarian; born in Northampton, Mass., Nov. 28, 1835; graduated at Yale College in 1856; was chief of the catalogue department in the Yale library for many years and in that capacity edited the *Ticknor Catalogue of Spanish Literature* and other similar publications. In 1899 he succeeded Herbert Putnam as librarian of the Boston Public Library.

Whitney, WILLIAM COLLINS, capitalist; born in Conway, Mass., July 15, 1841; graduated at Yale University in 1863, and at the Harvard Law School in 1865; admitted to the bar and began practising in New York; assisted in organizing the Young Men's Democratic Club in 1871; was active in the movement against the Tweed ring; and Secretary of the Navy in 1885–89, during which period the creation of the "new navy" was begun. He was largely interested in street railways. He died in New York City, Feb. 2, 1904.

Whitney, WILLIAM DWIGHT, philologist; born in Northampton, Mass., Feb. 9, 1827; graduated at Williams College in 1845; studied in Europe till 1853; was Profesor of Sanskrit in Yale University from 1854 till his death, in New Haven, June 7, 1894. In 1857–84 he was corresponding secretary of the American Oriental Society, and in 1884–90, its president. He contributed articles on Oriental philology to *Appleton's American Cyclopædia;* and was editor-in-chief of *The Century Dictionary.*

Whiton, JOHN MILTON, clergyman; born in Winchendon, Mass., Aug. 1, 1785; graduated at Yale College in 1805; was pastor of a Presbyterian church in Andover, N. H., in 1808–53. His publications include *Brief Notices of the Town of Antrim,* in the *Collections* of the New Hampshire Historical Society; *Sketches of the Early History of New Hampshire, 1623–1833,* etc. He died in Antrim, N. H., Sept. 28, 1856.

Whitside, SAMUEL MARMADUKE, military officer; born in Toronto, Canada, Jan. 9, 1839; joined the United States army in 1858; served throughout the Civil War with the 6th Cavalry; was then assigned to duty on the frontier, where he served for twenty-five years. In December, 1890, he captured Big Foot and his 400 Sioux warriors, and led his regiment at the battle of Wounded Knee. During the war with Spain he commanded the 5th Cavalry; was transferred to the 10th Cavalry in October, 1898; and went to Cuba in May, 1899, where he was placed

in command of the Department of Santiago and Puerto Principe in 1900, brigadier-general in 1901; retired June 9, 1902. He died in Washington, D. C., Dec. 15, 1904.

Whittaker, ALEXANDER, clergyman; born in England; accompanied Sir Thomas Dale to Virginia in 1611; was a missionary. Sir Thomas had been active in planting a settlement at Henrico, composed largely of Hollanders, and Mr. Whittaker, who was a decidedly Low Churchman, it was thought would be in sympathy with them, and so he seems to have been. He was puritanical in his proclivities. "The surplice," says Purchas, "was not even spoken of in his parish." He organized a congregation at Henrico, and there he preached until 1617, when he was drowned.

Whittemore, AMOS, inventor; born in Cambridge, Mass., April 19, 1759; reared a farmer; became a gunsmith; and then, with his brother, a manufacturer of cotton and wool-cards, or card-cloth. He claimed to have invented a machine for puncturing the leather and setting the wires, which was patented in 1797. Before that time the work had been performed slowly by hand. The establishment of spinning machinery in New England (see SLATER, SAMUEL) had made the business of card-making profitable, and so useful was Whittemore's machine that the patent was sold for $150,000. His brother Samuel afterwards repurchased it and carried on the business of making card-cloth. Amos died in West Cambridge, March 27, 1828.

WHITTIER, JOHN GREENLEAF

Whittier, JOHN GREENLEAF, poet; born in Haverhill, Mass., Dec. 17, 1807. His parents were Quakers, and he was a member of the Society of Friends till his death. Until he was eighteen years old he worked on his father's farm, and sent occasionally some verses to the local newspaper—Haverhill *Gazette*. Sometimes he worked at shoemaking. In 1829 he became editor of the *American Manufacturer*, in Boston. The next year he was editing in Hartford, Conn.; and in 1832–36 he edited the *Gazette*, at Haverhill. His first publication of any pretension was his *Legends of New England* (1831). Others soon followed. As early as 1833 he began to battle for the freedom of the slaves, and he never ceased warfare until the slave system disappeared in 1863. He was elected secretary of the Anti-slavery Society in 1836, and edited, in Philadelphia, the *Pennsylvania Freeman*, devoted to its principles. In 1840 he removed to Amesbury, Mass., where he resided until about 1878, cultivating a small farm. In 1847 he became corresponding editor of the *National Era*, an anti-slavery paper published at Washington, D. C. Mr. Whittier was a thoroughly American poet, and most of his verses were inspired by current events. The spirit of humanity, democracy, and patriotism expressed in his poems and prose writings made the public regard him with reverential affection. He died in Hampton Falls, N. H., Sept. 7, 1892.

The Centennial Hymn. — The following hymn by Mr. Whittier was sung at the opening of the Centennial Exposition in 1876:

"Our fathers' God! from out whose hand
The centuries fall like grains of sand,
We meet to-day, united, free,
And loyal to our land and Thee,
To thank Thee for the era done,
And trust Thee for the opening one.

"Here, where of old, by Thy design,
The fathers spake that word of Thine,
Whose echo is the glad refrain
Of rended bolt and falling chain,
To grace our festal time, from all
The zones of earth our guests we call.

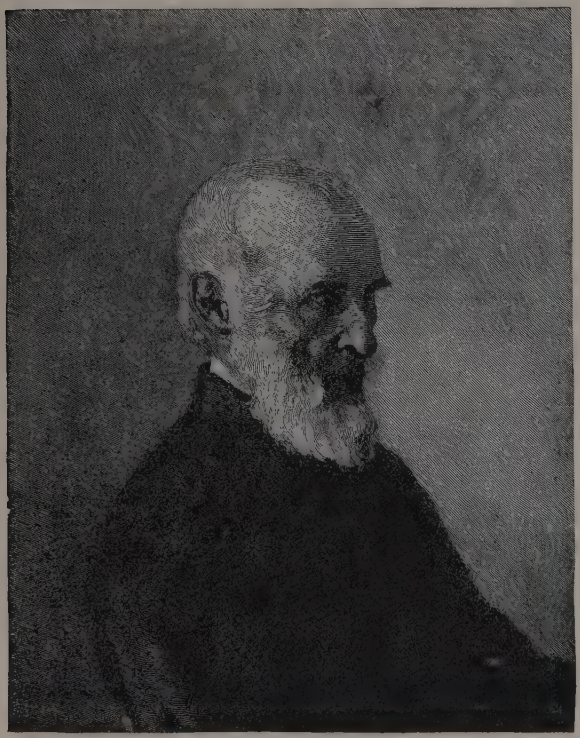
"Be with us while the New World greets
The Old World, thronging all its streets,
Unveiling all the triumphs won
By art or toil beneath the sun;
And unto common good ordain
This rivalship of hand and brain.

"Thou, who hast here in concord furled
The war-flags of a gathered world,
Beneath our Western skies fulfil
The Orient's mission of good-will,
And, freighted with love's Golden Fleece,
Send back the Argonauts of peace.

"For art and labor met in truce,
For beauty made the bride of use,
We thank Thee, while, withal, we crave
The austere virtues strong to save,
The honor proof to place or gold,
The manhood never bought nor sold.

"Oh! make Thou us, through centuries long,
In peace secure, in justice strong;
Around our gifts of freedom draw
The safeguards of Thy righteous law;
And, cast in some diviner mould,
Let the new cycle shame the old!"

Whittier was pre-eminently the poet of the anti-slavery conflict. There is almost no phase of the great wrong and almost



JOHN GREENLEAF WHITTIER.

no episode in the struggle for its abolition which is not the subject of some burning poem from his pen. Whittier's prose writings against slavery were also numerous—he was a vigorous polemic—and these papers, twenty in number, may be found together in vol. vii. of the Riverside edition. Among them are the pamphlet *Justice and Expediency*, which he refers to in his account of the convention of 1833 as his first venture in authorship, and his two letters to the *Jeffersonian and Times*, Richmond, Va. (1833), on *The Abolitionists: their Sentiments and Objects.*

The Life of Whittier, by Samuel T. Pickard, is especially full, touching his work against slavery and his general political life, which was much more active than is commonly supposed. There are briefer biographies by Underwood, Kennedy, and Linton, and interesting volumes of personal reminiscences by Mrs. Mary B. Claflin and Mrs. James T. Fields.

The Anti-slavery Convention of 1833.—By John G. Whittier. Written in 1874. Copyright, 1888, by John Greenleaf Whittier.*

In the gray twilight of a chill day of late November, forty years ago, a dear friend of mine, residing in Boston, made his appearance at the old farm-house in East Haverhill. He had been deputed by the abolitionists of the city, William L. Garrison, Samuel E. Sewall, and others, to inform me of my appointment as a delegate to the convention about to be held in Philadelphia for the formation of an American anti-slavery society, and to urge upon me the necessity of my attendance.

Few words of persuasion, however, were needed. I was unused to travelling; my life had been spent on a secluded farm; and the journey, mostly by stage-coach, at that time was really a formidable one. Moreover, the few abolitionists were everywhere spoken against, their persons threatened, and in some instances a price set on their heads by Southern legislators Pennsylvania was on the borders of slavery, and it needed small effort of imagination to picture to one's self the breaking up of the convention and maltreatment of its members. This latter

* Reprinted by permission from Whittier's Prose Works, published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

consideration I do not think weighed much with me, although I was better prepared for serious danger than for anything like personal indignity. I had read Governor Trumbull's description of the tarring and feathering of his hero MacFingal, when, after the application of the melted tar, the feather bed was ripped open and shaken over him, until

> "Not Maia's son, with wings for ears,
> Such plumes about his visage wears,
> Nor Milton's six-winged angel gathers
> Such superfluity of feathers";

and, I confess, I was quite unwilling to undergo a martyrdom which my best friends could scarcely refrain from laughing at. But a summons like that of Garrison's bugle-blast could scarcely be unheeded by one who, from birth and education, held fast the traditions of that earlier abolitionism which, under the lead of Benezet and Woolman, had effaced from the Society of Friends every vestige of slave-holding. I had thrown myself, with a young man's fervid enthusiasm, into a movement which commended itself to my reason and conscience, to my love of country and my sense of duty to God and my fellow-men. My first venture in authorship was the publication at my own expense, in the spring of 1833, of a pamphlet entitled *Justice and Expediency*, on the moral and political evils of slavery and the duty of emancipation. Under such circumstances I could not hesitate, but prepared at once for my journey. It was necessary that I should start on the morrow; and the intervening time, with a small allowance of sleep, was spent in providing for the care of the farm and homestead during my absence.

So the next morning I took the stage for Boston, stopping at the ancient hostelry known as the Eastern Stage Tavern; and on the day following, in company with William Lloyd Garrison, I left for New York. At that city we were joined by other delegates, among them David Thurston, a Congregational minister from Maine. On our way to Philadelphia we took, as a matter of necessary economy, a second-class conveyance, and found ourselves, in consequence, among rough and hilarious companions, whose language was more noteworthy for strength than refinement. Our worthy friend the clergyman bore it a while in painful silence, but at last felt it his duty to utter words of remonstrance and admonition. The leader of the young roisterers listened with ludicrous mock gravity, thanked him for his exhortation, and, expressing fears that the extraordinary effort had exhausted his strength, invited him to take a drink with him. Father Thurston buried his grieved face in his coat-collar, and wisely left the young reprobates to their own devices.

On reaching Philadelphia, we at once betook ourselves to the humble dwelling on Fifth Street occupied by Evan Lewis, a plain, earnest man and lifelong abolitionist, who had been largely interested in preparing the way for the convention. In one respect the time of our assembling seemed unfavorable. The Society of Friends, upon whose co-operation we had counted, had but recently been rent asunder by one of those unhappy controversies which so often mark the decline of practical righteousness. The martyrage of the society had passed, wealth and luxury had taken the place of the old simplicity; there was a growing conformity to the maxims of the world in trade and fashion, and with it a corresponding unwillingness to hazard respectability by the advocacy of unpopular reforms. Unprofitable speculation and disputation on one hand, and a vain attempt on the other to enforce uniformity of opinion, had measurably lost sight of the fact that the end of the gospel is love, and that charity is its crowning virtue. After a long and painful struggle the disruption had taken place. The shattered fragments, under the name of Orthodox and Hicksite, so like and yet so separate in feeling, confronted each other as hostile sects; and

> "Never either found another
> To free the hollow heart from paining:
> They stood aloof, the scars remaining,
> Like cliffs that have been torn asunder,
> A dreary sea now flows between;
> But neither rain nor frost nor thunder
> Can wholly do away, I ween,
> The marks of that which once has been."

We found about forty members assembled in the parlors of our friend Lewis, and after some general conversation Lewis

Tappan was asked to preside over an informal meeting preparatory to the opening of the convention. A handsome, intellectual-looking man, in the prime of life, responded to the invitation, and in a clear, well-modulated voice, the firm tones of which inspired hope and confidence, stated the objects of our preliminary council, and the purpose which had called us together, in earnest and well-chosen words. In making arrangements for the convention, it was thought expedient to secure, if possible, the services of some citizen of Philadelphia of distinction and high social standing to preside over its deliberations. Looking round among ourselves in vain for some titled civilian or doctor of divinity, we were fain to confess that to outward seeming we were but "a feeble folk," sorely needing the shield of a popular name. A committee, of which I was a member, was appointed to go in search of a president of this description. We visited two prominent gentlemen, known as friendly to emancipation and of high social standing. They received us with the dignified courtesy of the old school, declined our proposition in civil terms, and bowed us out with a cool politeness equalled only by that of the senior Winkle towards the unlucky deputation of Pickwick and his unprepossessing companions. As we left their doors, we could not refrain from smiling in each other's faces at the thought of the small inducement our proffer of the presidency held out to men of their class. Evidently, our company was not one for respectability to march through Coventry with.

On the following morning we repaired to the Adelphi Building, on Fifth Street, below Walnut, which had been secured for our use. Sixty-two delegates were found to be in attendance. Beriah Green, of the Oneida (N. Y.) Institute, was chosen president, a fresh-faced, sandy-haired, rather common-looking man, but who had the reputation of an able and eloquent speaker. He had already made himself known to us as a resolute and self-sacrificing abolitionist. Lewis Tappan and myself took our places at his side as secretaries, on the elevation at the west end of the hall.

Looking over the assembly, I noticed that it was mainly composed of comparatively young men, some in middle age, and a few beyond that period. They were nearly all plainly dressed, with a view to comfort rather than elegance. Many of the faces turned towards me wore a look of expectancy and suppressed enthusiasm. All had the earnestness which might be expected of men engaged in an enterprise beset with difficulty and perhaps with peril. The fine, intellectual head of Garrison, prematurely bald, was conspicuous. The sunny-faced young man at his side, in whom all the beatitudes seemed to find expression, was Samuel J. May, mingling in his veins the best blood of the Sewalls and Quincys—a man so exceptionally pure and large-hearted, so genial, tender, and loving, that he could be faithful to truth and duty without making an enemy.

> "The de'il wad look into his face,
> And swear he couldna wrang him."

That tall, gaunt, swarthy man, erect, eagle-faced, upon whose somewhat martial figure the Quaker coat seemed a little out of place, was Lindley Coates, known in all eastern Pennsylvania as a stern enemy of slavery. That slight, eager man, intensely alive in every feature and gesture, was Thomas Shipley, who for thirty years had been the protector of the free colored people of Philadelphia, and whose name was whispered reverently in the slave cabins of Maryland as the friend of the black man, one of a class peculiar to old Quakerism, who in doing what they felt to be duty and walking as the Light within guided them knew no fear and shrank from no sacrifice. Braver men the world has not known. Beside him, differing in creed, but united with him in works of love and charity, sat Thomas Whitson, of the Hicksite School of Friends, fresh from his farm in Lancaster county, dressed in plainest homespun, his tall form surmounted by a shock of unkempt hair, the odd obliquity of his vision contrasting strongly with the clearness and directness of his spiritual insight. Elizur Wright, the young professor of a Western college, who had lost his place by his bold advocacy of freedom, with a look of sharp concentration in keeping with an intellect keen as a Damascus blade, closely watched the proceedings through his spec-

tacles, opening his mouth only to speak directly to the purpose. The portly form of Dr. Bartholomew Fussell, the beloved physician, from that beautiful land of plenty and peace which Bayard Taylor has described in his *Story of Kennett*, was not to be overlooked. Abolitionist in heart and soul, his house was known as the shelter of runaway slaves; and no sportsman ever entered into the chase with such zest as he did into the arduous and sometimes dangerous work of aiding their escape and baffling their pursuers. The youngest man present was, I believe, James Miller McKim, a Presbyterian minister from Columbia, afterwards one of our most efficient workers. James Mott, E. L. Capron, Arnold Buffum, and Nathan Winslow, men well known in the anti-slavery agitation, were conspicuous members. Vermont sent down from her mountains Orson S. Murray, a man terribly in earnest, with a zeal that bordered on fanaticism, and who was none the more genial for the mob-violence to which he had been subjected. In front of me, awakening pleasant associations of the old homestead in Merrimac valley, sat my first school-teacher, Joshua Coffin, the learned and worthy antiquarian and historian of Newbury. A few spectators, mostly of the Hicksite division of Friends, were present, in broad brims and plain bonnets, among them Esther Moore and Lucretia Mott.

Committees were chosen to draft a constitution for a national anti-slavery society, nominate a list of officers, and prepare a declaration of principles to be signed by the members. Dr. A. L. Cox, of New York, while these committees were absent, read something from my pen eulogistic of William Lloyd Garrison; and Lewis Tappan and Amos A. Phelps, a Congregational clergyman of Boston, afterwards one of the most devoted laborers in the cause, followed in generous commendation of the zeal, courage, and devotion of the young pioneer. The president, after calling James McCrummell, one of the two or three colored members of the convention, to the chair, made some eloquent remarks upon those editors who had ventured to advocate emancipation. At the close of his speech a young man rose to speak, whose appearance at once arrested my attention. I think I have never seen a finer face and figure; and his manner, words, and bearing were in keeping. "Who is he?" I asked of one of the Pennsylvania delegates. "Robert Purvis, of this city, a colored man," was the answer. He began by uttering his heart-felt thanks to the delegates who had convened for the deliverance of his people. He spoke of Garrison in terms of warmest eulogy, as one who had stirred the heart of the nation, broken the tomb-like slumber of the Church, and compelled it to listen to the story of the slave's wrongs. He closed by declaring that the friends of colored Americans would not be forgotten. "Their memories," he said, "will be cherished when pyramids and monuments shall have crumbled in dust. The flood of time, which is sweeping away the refuge of lies, is bearing on the advocates of our cause to a glorious immortality."

The committee on the constitution made their report, which after discussion was adopted. It disclaimed any right or intention of interfering, otherwise than by persuasion and Christian expostulation, with slavery as it existed in the States, but affirming the duty of Congress to abolish it in the District of Columbia and Territories, and to put an end to the domestic slave-trade. A list of officers of the new society was then chosen: Arthur Tappan, of New York, president, and Elizur Wright, Jr., William Lloyd Garrison, and A. L. Cox, secretaries. Among the vice-presidents was Dr. Lord, of Dartmouth College, then professedly in favor of emancipation, but who afterwards turned a moral somersault, a self-inversion which left him ever after on his head instead of his feet. He became a querulous advocate of slavery as a divine institution, and denounced woe upon the abolitionists for interfering with the will and purpose of the Creator. As the cause of freedom gained ground, the poor man's heart failed him, and his hope for Church and State grew fainter and fainter. A sad prophet of the evangel of slavery, he testified in the unwilling ears of an unbelieving generation, and died at last, despairing of a world which seemed determined that Canaan should no longer be cursed, nor Onesimus sent back to Philemon.

The committee on the declaration of

principles, of which I was a member, held a long session discussing the proper scope and tenor of the document. But little progress being made, it was finally decided to intrust the matter to a sub-committee, consisting of William L. Garrison, S. J. May, and myself; and, after a brief consultation and comparison of each other's views, the drafting of the important paper was assigned to the former gentleman. We agreed to meet him at his lodgings in the house of a colored friend early the next morning. It was still dark when we climbed up to his room, and the lamp was still burning by the light of which he was writing the last sentence of the declaration. We read it carefully, made a few verbal changes, and submitted it to the large committee, who unanimously agreed to report it to the convention.

The paper was read to the convention by Dr. Atlee, chairman of the committee, and listened to with the profoundest interest.

Commencing with a reference to the time, fifty-seven years before, when, in the same city of Philadelphia, our fathers announced to the world their Declaration of Independence—based on the self-evident truths of human equality and rights—and appealed to arms for its defence, it spoke of the new enterprise as one "without which that of our fathers is incomplete," and as transcending theirs in magnitude, solemnity, and probable results as much "as moral truth does physical force." It spoke of the difference of the two in the means and ends proposed, and of the trifling grievances of our fathers compared with the wrongs and sufferings of the slaves, which it forcibly characterized as unequalled by any others on the face of the earth. It claimed that the nation was bound to repent at once, to let the oppressed go free, and to admit them to all the rights and privileges of others; because, it asserted, no man has a right to enslave or imbrute his brother; because liberty is inalienable; because there is no difference in principle between slave-holding and man-stealing, which the law brands as piracy; and because no length of bondage can invalidate man's claim to himself, or render slave laws anything but "an audacious usurpation."

It maintained that no compensation should be given to planters emancipating slaves, because that would be a surrender of fundamental principles. "Slavery is a crime, and is, therefore, not an article to be sold"; because slave-holders are not just proprietors of what they claim; because emancipation would destroy only nominal, not real, property; and because compensation, if given at all, should be given to the slaves.

It declared any "scheme of expatriation" to be "delusive, cruel, and dangerous." It fully recognized the right of each State to legislate exclusively on the subject of slavery within its limits, and conceded that Congress, under the present national compact, had no right to interfere, though still contending that it had the power, and should exercise it, "to suppress the domestic slave-trade between the several States," and "to abolish slavery in the District of Columbia, and in those portions of our territory which the Constitution has placed under its exclusive jurisdiction."

After clearly and emphatically avowing the principles underlying the enterprise, and guarding with scrupulous care the rights of persons and States under the Constitution, in prosecuting it, the declaration closed with these eloquent words:

"We also maintain that there are at the present time the highest obligations resting upon the people of the free States to remove slavery by moral and political action, as prescribed in the Constitution of the United States. They are now living under a pledge of their tremendous physical force to fasten the galling fetters of tyranny upon the limbs of millions in the Southern States; they are liable to be called at any moment to suppress a general insurrection of the slaves; they authorize the slave-holder to vote on three-fifths of his slaves as property, and thus enable him to perpetuate his oppression; they support a standing army at the South for its protection; and they seize the slave who has escaped into their territories, and send him back to be tortured by an enraged master or a brutal driver. This relation to slavery is criminal and full of danger. It must be broken up.

"These are our views and principles—these our designs and measures. With entire confidence in the overruling justice of God, we plant ourselves upon the Declaration of Independence and the truths of divine revelation as upon the everlasting rock.

"We shall organize anti-slavery societies, if possible, in every city, town, and village in our land.

"We shall send forth agents to lift up the voice of remonstrance, of warning, of entreaty and rebuke.

"We shall circulate unsparingly and extensively anti-slavery tracts and periodicals.

"We shall enlist the pulpit and the press in the cause of the suffering and the dumb.

"We shall aim at a purification of the churches from all participation in the guilt of slavery.

"We shall encourage the labor of freemen over that of the slaves, by giving a preference to their productions; and

"We shall spare no exertions nor means to bring the whole nation to speedy repentance.

"Our trust for victory is solely in God. We may be personally defeated, but our principles never. Truth, justice, reason, humanity, must and will gloriously triumph. Already a host is coming up to the help of the Lord against the mighty, and the prospect before us is full of encouragement.

"Submitting this declaration to the candid examination of the people of this country and of the friends of liberty all over the world, we hereby affix our signatures to it, pledging ourselves that, under the guidance and by the help of Almighty God, we will do all that in us lies, consistently with this declaration of our principles, to overthrow the most execrable system of slavery that has ever been witnessed upon earth, to deliver our land from its deadliest curse, to wipe out the foulest stain which rests upon our national escutcheon, and to secure to the colored population of the United States all the rights and privileges which belong to them as men and as Americans, come what may to our persons, our interests, or our reputations, whether we live to witness the triumph of justice, liberty, and humanity, or perish untimely as martyrs in this great, benevolent, and holy cause."

The reading of the paper was followed by a discussion which lasted several hours. A member of the Society of Friends moved its immediate adoption. "We have," he said, "all given it our assent: every heart here responds to it. It is a doctrine of Friends that these strong and deep impressions should be heeded." The convention, nevertheless, deemed it important to go over the declaration carefully, paragraph by paragraph. During the discussion one of the spectators asked leave to say a few words. A beautiful and graceful woman, in the prime of life, with a face beneath her plain cap as finely intellectual as that of Madame Roland, offered some wise and valuable suggestions, in a clear, sweet voice, the charm of which I have never forgotten. It was Lucretia Mott, of Philadelphia. The president courteously thanked her, and encouraged her to take a part in the discussion. On the morning of the last day of our session the declaration, with its few verbal amendments, carefully engrossed on parchment, was brought before the convention. Samuel J. May rose to read it for the last time. His sweet, persuasive voice faltered with the intensity of his emotions as he repeated the solemn pledges of the concluding paragraphs. After a season of silence, David Thurston, of Maine, rose as his name was called by one of the secretaries, and affixed his name to the document. One after another passed up to the platform, signed, and retired in silence. All felt the deep responsibility of the occasion: the shadow and forecast of a lifelong struggle rested upon every countenance.

Our work as a convention was now done. President Green arose to make the concluding address. The circumstances under which it was uttered may have lent it an impressiveness not its own; but, as I now recall it, it seems to me the most powerful and eloquent speech to which I have ever listened. He passed in review the work that had been done, the constitution of the new society, the declaration of sentiments, and the union and earnestness which had marked the pro-

ceedings. His closing words will never be forgotten by those who heard them:

"Brethren, it has been good to be here. In this hallowed atmosphere I have been revived and refreshed. This brief interview has more than repaid me for all that I have ever suffered. I have here met congenial minds. I have rejoiced in sympathies delightful to the soul. Heart has beat responsive to heart, and the whole work of seeking to benefit the outraged and despised has proved the most blessed employment.

"But now we must retire from these balmy influences, and breathe another atmosphere. The chill hoar-frost will be upon us. The storm and tempest will rise, and the waves of persecution will dash against our souls. Let us be prepared for the worst. Let us fasten ourselves to the throne of God as with hooks of steel. If we cling not to Him, our names to that document will be but as dust.

"Let us court no applause, indulge in no spirit of vain boasting. Let us be assured that our only hope in grappling with the bony monster is in an Arm that is stronger than ours. Let us fix our gaze on God, and walk in the light of His countenance. If our cause be just—and we know it is—His omnipotence is pledged to its triumph. Let this cause be entwined around the very fibres of our hearts. Let our hearts grow to it, so that nothing but death can sunder the bond."

He ceased, and then, amidst a silence broken only by the deep-drawn breath of emotion in the assembly, lifted up his voice in prayer to Almighty God, full of fervor and feeling, imploring His blessing and sanctification upon the convention and its labors. And with the solemnity of this supplication in our hearts we clasped hands in farewell, and went forth each man to his place of duty, not knowing the things that should befall us as individuals, but with a confidence never shaken by abuse and persecution in the certain triumph of our cause.

Formation of the American Anti-slavery Society.—A letter to William Lloyd Garrison, president of the society:

AMESBURY, *Nov. 24, 1863.*

MY DEAR FRIEND,—I have received thy kind letter with the accompanying circular, inviting me to attend the commemoration of the thirtieth anniversary of the formation of the American Anti-slavery Society at Philadelphia. It is with the deepest regret that I am compelled by the feeble state of my health to give up all hope of meeting thee and my other old and dear friends on an occasion of so much interest. How much it costs me to acquiesce in the hard necessity thy own feelings will tell thee better than any words of mine.

I look back over thirty years, and call to mind all the circumstances of my journey to Philadelphia, in company with thyself and the excellent Dr. Thurston, of Maine, even then as we thought an old man, but still living, and true as ever to the good cause. I recall the early gray morning when, with Samuel J. May, our colleague on the committee to prepare a declaration of sentiments for the convention, I climbed to the small "upper chamber" of a colored friend to hear thee read the first draft of a paper which will live as long as our national history. I see the members of the convention, solemnized by the responsibility, rise one by one and solemnly affix their names to that stern pledge of fidelity to freedom. Of the signers many have passed away from earth, a few have faltered and turned back; but I believe the majority still live to rejoice over the great triumph of truth and justice, and to devote what remains of time and strength to the cause to which they consecrated their youth and manhood thirty years ago.

For, while we may well thank God and congratulate one another on the prospect of the speedy emancipation of the slaves of the United States, we must not for a moment forget that from this hour new and mighty responsibilities devolve upon us to aid, direct, and educate these millions left free, indeed, but bewildered, ignorant, naked, and foodless in the wild chaos of civil war. We have to undo the accumulated wrongs of two centuries, to remake the manhood which slavery has wellnigh unmade, to see to it that the long-oppressed colored man has a fair field for development and improvement, and to tread under our feet the last vestige of that hateful prejudice which has been the strongest external support of Southern

slavery. We must lift ourselves at once to the true Christian altitude where all distinctions of black and white are overlooked in the heartfelt recognition of the brotherhood of man.

I must not close this letter without confessing that I cannot be sufficiently thankful to the Divine Providence which, in a great measure through thy instrumentality, turned me away so early from what Roger Williams calls "the world's great trinity—pleasure, profit, and honor," to take side with the poor and oppressed. I am not insensible to literary reputation. I love, perhaps too well, the praise and good-will of my fellow-men; but I set a higher value on my name as appended to the anti-slavery declaration of 1833 than on the title-page of any book. Looking over a life marked by many errors and shortcomings, I rejoice that I have been able to maintain the pledge of that signature, and that, in the long intervening years,

"My voice, though not the loudest, has been heard
Wherever Freedom raised her cry of pain."

Let me, through thee, extend a warm greeting to the friends, whether of our own or the new generation, who may assemble on the occasion of commemoration. There is work yet to be done which will task the best efforts of us all. For thyself, I need not say that the love and esteem of early boyhood have lost nothing by the test of time; and

I am, very cordially, thy friend,
JOHN G. WHITTIER.

Anti-slavery Anniversary.—Read at the semi-centennial celebration of the American Anti-slavery Society at Philadelphia on Dec. 3, 1883:

OAK KNOLL, DANVERS, MASS.,
Nov. 30, 1883.

I need not say how gladly I would be with you at the semi-centennial of the American Anti-slavery Society. I am, I regret to say, quite unable to gratify this wish, and can only represent myself by a letter.

Looking back over the long years of half a century, I can scarcely realize the conditions under which the convention of 1833 assembled. Slavery was predominant. Like Apollyon in *Pilgrim's Progress*, it "straddled over the whole breadth of the way." Church and State, press and pulpit, business interests, literature, and fashion were prostrate at its feet. Our convention, with few exceptions, was composed of men without influence or position, poor and little known, strong only in their convictions and faith in the justice of their cause. To on-lookers our endeavor to undo the evil work of two centuries and convert a nation to the "great renunciation" involved in emancipation must have seemed absurd in the last degree. Our voices in such an atmosphere found no echo. We could look for no response but laughs of derision or the missiles of a mob.

But we felt that we had the strength of truth on our side; we were right, and all the world about us was wrong. We had faith, hope, and enthusiasm, and did our work, nothing doubting, amidst a generation who first despised and then feared and hated us. For myself I have never ceased to be grateful to the Divine Providence for the privilege of taking a part in that work.

And now for more than twenty years we have had a free country. No slave treads its soil. The anticipated dangerous consequences of complete emancipation have not been felt. The emancipated class, as a whole, have done wisely and well under circumstances of peculiar difficulty. The masters have learned that cotton can be raised better by free than by slave labor, and nobody now wishes a return to slave-holding. Sectional prejudices are subsiding, the bitterness of the Civil War is slowly passing away. We are beginning to feel that we are one people, with no really clashing interests, and none more truly rejoice in the growing prosperity of the South than the old abolitionists, who hated slavery as a curse to the master as well as to the slave.

In view of this commemorative semi-centennial occasion, many thoughts crowd upon me; memory recalls vanished faces and voices long hushed. Of those who acted with me in the convention fifty years ago nearly all have passed into another state of being. We who remain must soon follow; we have seen the fulfilment of our

desire; we have outlived scorn and persecution; the lengthening shadows invite us to rest. If, in looking back, we feel that we sometimes erred through impatient zeal in our contest with a great wrong, we have the satisfaction of knowing that we were influenced by no merely selfish considerations. The low light of our setting sun shines over a free, united people, and our last prayer shall be for their peace, prosperity, and happiness.

Whittlesey, CHARLES, geologist; born in Southington, Conn., Oct. 4, 1808, and went to Tallmadge, O., in 1813; graduated at West Point in 1831; resigned the next year. He became assistant quartermaster-general of Ohio in 1861; engaged in the campaign in western Virginia, and became colonel of the 20th Ohio Volunteers. He was at the siege of Fort Donelson, and in the battle of Shiloh commanded a brigade in Gen. Wallace's division. He died in Cleveland, O., Oct. 18, 1886.

Wickersham, GEORGE WOODWARD, lawyer; born in Pittsburgh, Pa., Sept. 19, 1858; practised in Philadelphia, 1880–82; in New York, 1882–1909; was counsel for several large corporations, including the Interborough Rapid Transit Co.; became Attorney-General of the United States, March 4, 1909. In 1911 he was especially active in enforcing the orders of the United States Supreme Court under its decisions in the cases of the Standard Oil Company and the Tobacco Trust, and of the Department of the Interior under its cancellation of the great coal-land claims in Alaska, and in instituting proceedings against other large corporations.

Wickes, LAMBERT, naval officer; born in New England, presumably in 1735; joined the navy Dec. 22, 1775; commanded the brig *Reprisal* in 1776, and in the summer of that year captured the English vessels *Friendship*, *Shark*, and *Peter*. He next took Benjamin Franklin to France while in command of the same vessel, and before leaving French waters captured fourteen ships in five days. The *Reprisal*, with Wickes and all the crew, was lost in a storm off Newfoundland in 1778.

Wickliffe, CHARLES A., legislator; born in Bardstown, Ky., June 8, 1788; served during the War of 1812; member of Congress, 1823–33; lieutenant-governor of Kentucky, 1836–37; governor, 1839–41; United States Postmaster-General, 1841–45. He died in Howard county, Md., Oct. 31, 1869.

Wide Awakes. One of the first political organizations to parade in uniform with torch-lights. They favored the election of Lincoln in 1860.

Wigfall, LOUIS TREZEVANT, legislator; born in Edgefield district, S. C., April 21, 1816; left the South Carolina College to enter the army for the Indian War in Florida; was admitted to the bar; Texan State senator in 1857–60; U. S. Senator, 1860–61.

Commenting on Mr. Lincoln's inaugural address, Senator Wigfall said: "The Confederate States will not leave Fort Sumter in possession of the Federal government. . . . Seven States have formed a confederation, and to tell them, as the President has done, that the acts of secession are no more than blank paper is an insult. . . . There is no Union left. . . . The seceded States will not live under this administration. Withdraw your troops. Make no attempt to collect tribute, and enter into a treaty with those States. Do this and you will have peace. Send your flag of thirty-four stars thither and it will be fired into, and war will ensue. Divide the public property; make a fair assessment of the public debt; or will you sit stupidly and idly till there shall be a conflict of arms because you cannot compromise with traitors? Let the remaining States reform their government, and, if it is acceptable, the Confederacy will enter into a treaty of commerce and amity with them. If you want peace, you shall have it; if you want war, you shall have it. . . . No compromise or amendment to the Constitution, no arrangement you may enter into, will satisfy the South unless you recognize slaves as property and protect it as any other species of property."

Wigfall was on Morris Island when the bombardment of Fort Sumter began, and on April 13 he went in a boat to Sumter. He carried a white handkerchief on the point of a sword as a flag of truce. Landing, he hastened to an embrasure and asked permission to enter. "I am General Wigfall," he said; "I wish to see Major Anderson." "Wait here until I can see the commander," said the soldier.

"For God's sake, let me in!" cried Wigfall; "I can't stand it out here in the firing." He ran to the sally-port, and was confronted by burning timbers. He ran around the fort, waving his handkerchief to induce his fellow-Confederates to cease firing. But the missiles fell thick and fast, and he was permitted to crawl into an embrasure, after he had given up his sword to a private soldier. There he met some of the officers. Trembling with excitement, he said: "I am General Wigfall; I come from General Beauregard, who wants to stop this bloodshed. You are on fire, and your flag is down; let us stop this firing." One of the officers said, "Our flag is not down." And the Senator saw it where Peter Hart had planted it. He tried to get the officers to display his handkerchief above the fort or out of the embrasure; but all refusing, he said, "May I hold it, then?" One of them coolly replied, "If you wish to." Wigfall sprang into the embrasure and waved the white flag several times. Frightened away by shots, he said to one of the officers, "If you will wave this from the ramparts they will cease firing." "It shall be done," was the reply, "if you request it for the purpose, and that alone, of holding a conference with Major Anderson."

They met. Wigfall said he came from General Beauregard, who wished to stop the fighting. "Upon what terms will you evacuate the fort?" "General Beauregard knows the terms upon which I will evacuate on the 15th. Instead of noon on the 15th, I will go now." "I understand you to say," said Wigfall, eagerly, "that you will evacuate the fort now, sir, upon the same terms." Anderson answered in the affirmative. "Then," said Wigfall, inquiringly, "the fort is to be ours?" "Yes, sir." "Then I will return to Beauregard," said Wigfall, and he departed. Believing Wigfall's story, Anderson allowed a white flag to be raised over the fort. Soon afterwards several gentlemen (one of them directly from Beauregard at Fort Moultrie) came to Sumter, and, when they were informed of Wigfall's visit, assured Major Anderson that Wigfall had not seen Beauregard in two days. The indignant Anderson was about to haul down the white flag, when they begged him to let it remain until they could see Beauregard. An arrangement for the evacuation was soon after made. After the war Wigfall resided for several years in England, and in 1873 settled in Baltimore. He died in Galveston, Tex., Feb. 18, 1874.

Wigger, Winand Michael, clergyman; born in New York, Dec. 8, 1841; graduated at St. Francis Xavier College in 1860; studied theology at Seton Hall Seminary, South Orange, N. J., in 1860–62; and Brignoli Sali Seminary, Geneva, 1862–65; ordained in the Roman Catholic Church in 1865; and was assistant president of St. Patrick's Cathedral, Newark, N. J., in 1865–69; rector of St. Vincent's Roman Catholic Church, in Madison, N. J., in 1869–73; of St. John's, in Orange, N. J., in 1874–76; and again at St. Vincent's till 1881, when he was consecrated bishop of Newark. He died in South Orange, N. J., Jan. 5, 1901.

Wigginton, Peter Dinwiddie, lawyer; born in Springfield, Ill., Sept. 6, 1839; educated at the University of Wisconsin, and was admitted to the bar in 1860. Shortly afterwards he removed to California, where he was elected to Congress in 1875 and 1877. While in Congress he introduced a bill forbidding fraudulent land surveys in California. In 1884 he was the candidate of the American party for President of the United States. He died in Oakland, Cal., July 7, 1890.

Wigglesworth, Edward, military officer; born in Ipswich, Mass., Jan. 3, 1742; graduated at Harvard College in 1761; became colonel in the Continental army in June, 1776; took part in the manœuvres of the American squadron on Lake Champlain; and was present in the battle of Monmouth and other actions. In 1778 he was president of a court of inquiry to examine into the capitulation of Forts Montgomery and Clinton; in 1779 he resigned, and was made collector of the port of Newburyport. He died in Newburyport, Mass., Dec. 8, 1826.

Wigglesworth, Michael, clergyman; born in England, Oct. 18, 1631; came to the United States with his father in 1638; graduated at Harvard College in 1651; became a tutor there; studied both theology and medicine; and was minister in Malden, Mass., from 1656 till his death,

June 10, 1705. He wrote *God's Controversy with New England*, etc.

Wigwam, an Indian dwelling; constructed of a bundle of poles fastened together at the top and placed in a cone-like position. These poles are then covered with the bark of trees or the skins

AN INDIAN WIGWAM.

of animals. In the winter a fire is built in the centre, and the inmates sleep at night with their feet towards it. The smoke escapes through the top. In migrations the wigwam is carried along.

Wilcox, CADMUS MARCELLUS, military officer; born in Wayne county, N. C., May 29, 1826; graduated at the United States Military Academy and commissioned second lieutenant of infantry in 1846; served in the war with Mexico; in the Confederate service during the Civil War; took part in the second battle of Bull Run, and in those of Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, Salem Heights, and Gettysburg; promoted major-general in 1863; and had command of a division in the Mine Run campaign. He was author of *Rifles and Rifle Practice*, and *History of the Mexican War*. He died in Washington, D. C., Dec. 2, 1890.

Wilcox, DELOS FRANKLIN, author; born in Ida, Mich., April 22, 1873; graduated at the University of Michigan in 1894; became chief, bureau of franchises, public service commission, 1st District, New York, in 1907. His publications include *The Study of City Government; The American City; The Government of Great American Cities; Municipal Franchises*, etc.

Wilcox, MARRION, author; born in Augusta, Ga., April 3, 1853; graduated at Yale University in 1878; studied law and was admitted to the bar; engaged in newspaper work in New York City in 1893. He is the author of *A Short History of the War with Spain;* one of the editors of *Harper's History of the War in the Philippines; Sketches in Spain, England and Italy*, etc.

Wilcox, REYNOLD WEBB, physician; born in Madison, Conn., March 29, 1856; graduated at Yale University in 1878; studied medicine in Europe. His publications include *Descendants of William Wilcoxson, Vincent Meigs, and Richard Webb; Madison: Her Soldiers;* and several medical works.

Wilcox, ROBERT WILLIAM, statesman; born in Kuhulu, Honuaula, island of Maui, Hawaii, Feb. 15, 1855; headed the revolution in Honolulu to restore the old constitution, 1889; commanded the revolutionists in an effort to restore Queen Liliuokalani, in their struggle with the Dole government, 1895; was captured and sentenced to death, but at the request of the United States government, President Dole commuted the sentence to imprisonment for 35 years with $10,000 fine. In 1896 he was pardoned, and in 1901 was elected the delegate in Congress for Hawaii. He died in Honolulu, Oct. 24, 1903.

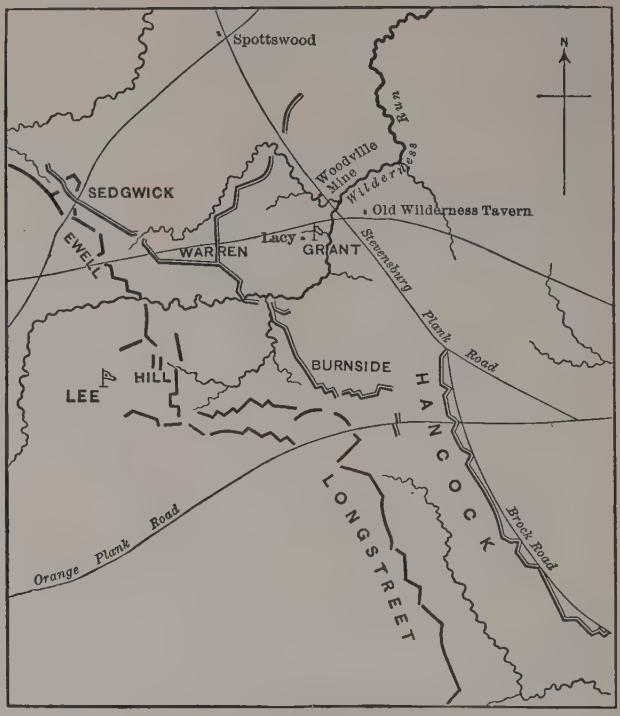
Wild-cat Banks. See BANKS, WILD-CAT.

Wilde, GEORGE FRANCIS FAXON, naval officer; born in Braintree, Mass., Feb. 23, 1845; graduated at the United States Naval Academy in 1864. He was promoted rear-admiral in 1904; and was retired Feb. 20, 1905. In the American-Spanish War he commanded the ram *Katahdin* in Cuban waters; afterwards was assigned to command the cruiser *Boston;* landed the marines and forwarded them to Peking, where they guarded the American legation from November, 1898, till April, 1899; was ordered to the Philippines, where he captured the city of Iloilo, Feb. 11, 1899, and Vigan, Feb. 18, 1900; and commanded the battle-ship *Oregon* from May 29, 1899, till Jan. 16, 1901. While hastening the Oregon from Manila to Chinese waters his vessel struck an uncharted ledge in the Gulf of Pechili, and was considerably injured; but he worked her off

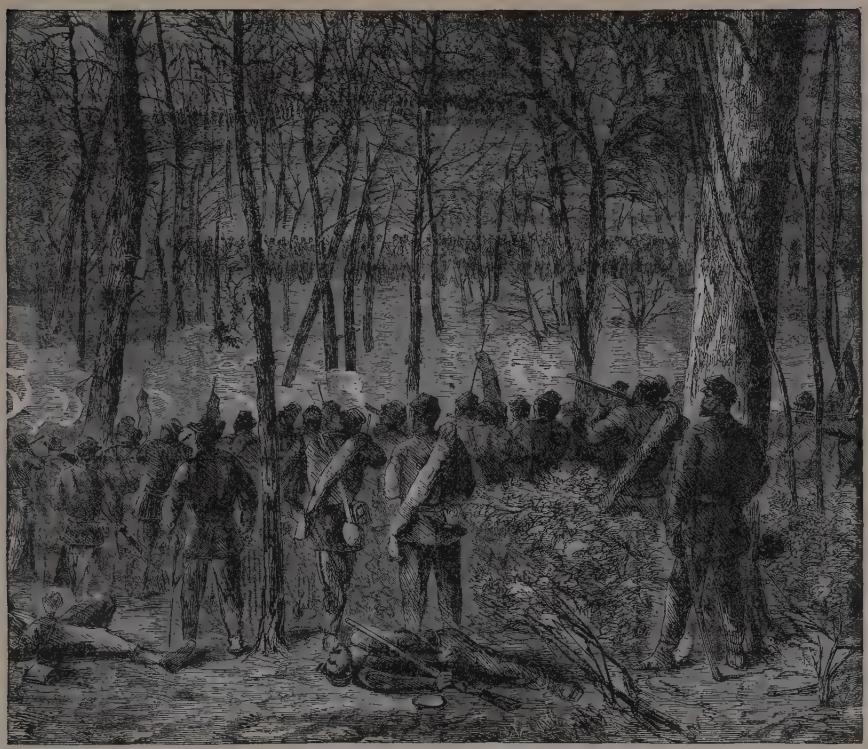
and took her to a Japanese port 765 miles distant.

Wilderness, Battle of the. At midnight on May 3, 1864, the Army of the Potomac, fully 100,000 strong, fresh and hopeful, and with an immense army-train, began its march towards Richmond. The right was composed of the corps of Warren and Sedgwick, and the left of that of Hancock. Warren's cavalry, preceded by that of Wilson, crossed the Rapidan at Germania Ford on the morning of the 4th, followed by Sedgwick. The left, preceded by Gregg's cavalry, and followed by the entire army-train of wagons, 4,000 in number, crossed at Ely's Ford at the same time. Burnside's 9th Corps, left behind in anticipation of a possible move of Lee on Washington, crossed the Rapidan and joined the army on the 5th, when the whole force had pushed on into the region known as "The Wilderness," beyond Chancellorsville, and well on the right flank of the Confederate army lying behind strong intrenchments on Mine Run. The whole force of the National army was now about 130,000 men, of whom a little more than 100,000 were available for battle. When Lee discovered this movement he pushed forward nearly his whole army to strike the flanks of the Nationals on their march. This movement failed.

On the 5th, Warren, who was followed by Sedgwick, sent the divisions of Griffin and Crawford to make observations. The former was struck by Ewell's corps, and the latter by Hill's a little later. The march was suspended. Crawford was withdrawn, and Griffin, reinforced by Wadsworth's division, with Robinson's in support, soon defeated the advance of Ewell; but, being continually reinforced, the Confederates soon defeated the Nationals. It was now past noon. Grant was satisfied that Lee's troops were near in full force. The country was so covered with shrub-oaks, bushes, and tangled vines that no observations could be made at any great distance. Grant ordered up Sedgwick's corps to the support of Warren; while Hancock, who was nearly 10 miles away, on the road to the left, marched back to join Warren. Getty's division of Sedgwick's corps was posted at the junction of two roads, with orders to hold the position at all hazards until the arrival of Hancock. The fighting, where it was begun in the morning, continued fierce until 4 P.M., when both armies fell back and intrenched within 200 yards of each other. Getty held his ground against severe pressure by Hill until Hancock's advance reached him at three o'clock. He then made an aggres-



MAP OF THE WILDERNESS BATTLE-FIELD.



BATTLE OF THE WILDERNESS.

sive movement, and fighting was kept up until dark, with heavy losses on both sides. Burnside's corps was brought up in the night and placed between Hancock and Warren.

Meanwhile Lee brought up Longstreet's corps to the support of Hill. And now each party in the contest was strengthened by an addition of 20,000 men. Just before 5 A.M. Ewell attacked the National right, and was repulsed. A very little later Hancock advanced his force against the Confederate right; while Wadsworth, who had prepared to strike Hill's left the night before, assailed him heavily. The Confederates were driven back a mile and a half, passing Lee's headquarters in the retreat. The flight was checked by Longstreet's advancing column. Hancock, expecting to be assailed by Longstreet, had attacked with only half his force. The latter's advance having been checked, he resumed his flank movement; but at that moment he was wounded and carried from the field, and his command devolved on Gen. R. H. Anderson. In the afternoon Lee projected the entire corps of Longstreet and Hill against Hancock, who had been reinforced and was strongly defended by breastworks. He stood firm until about four o'clock, when a fire in the woods attacked the brush and pine logs of his breastworks. The wind blew the heat and smoke in the faces of his troops and drove them from their defences, when the Confederates dashed forward and penetrated their lines.

But they were almost instantly repulsed, and Lee was compelled to abandon what he intended as a decisive assault. Night came on, and after dark Lee threw Ewell's corps forward against Sedgwick. There was some hard fighting and much confusion. Ewell captured the most of two brigades, and then fell back. So ended the battle in the Wilderness, without

decisive results on either side, and with a mutually heavy loss. In the two days the Nationals lost about 18,000 men, of whom 6,000 were made prisoners. Generals Hays, Wadsworth, and Webb were killed. The Confederate loss was probably about 11,000. Generals Jones, Pickett, and Jenkins were killed. Longstreet's wounds disabled him for several months. The Wilderness is a wild plateau, covered with a dense growth of dwarf trees and vines and brambles, and sloping every way to cultivated fields. It is along the south bank of the Rapidan River, about 10 miles in width and 15 in length.

Wildes, FRANK, naval officer; born in Boston, Mass., June 17, 1843; graduated at the United States Naval Academy in 1863, and assigned to the steam-sloop *Lackawanna*, in the West Gulf Blockading Squadron; participated in the battle of Mobile Bay, and aided in the capture of Fort Morgan; served on the monitor *Chickasaw* during the actions in Mobile Bay in March and April, 1865; promoted master in 1866; commander in 1880; and captain in 1894. He commanded the protected cruiser *Boston* in the battle of Manila Bay on May 1, 1898; was appointed captain of the United States navy-yard in Brooklyn, N. Y., April 1, 1899; was promoted rear-admiral, Oct. 14, 1901. He died at San Francisco, Cal., Feb. 6, 1903.

Wildman, MURRAY SHIPLEY, economist; born in Selma, O., Feb. 22, 1868; Ph.D. of the University of Chicago, 1904; professor of economics and commerce in Northwestern University from 1909; secretary of the National Citizens' League for the Promotion of a Sound Banking System; author of *Money Inflation in the United States*, etc.

Wiley, CALVIN HENDERSON, clergyman; born in Guilford county, N. C., Feb. 3, 1819; graduated at the University of North Carolina in 1840; was admitted to the bar; later engaged in teaching; and in 1855 was licensed to preach in the Presbyterian Church, and labored in eastern Tennessee, North Carolina, and South Carolina. He was the author of *Utopia: a Picture of Early Life at the South; Life in the South, a Companion to Uncle Tom's Cabin; Scriptural Views of National Trials; Roanoke: or Where is Utopia?* etc. He died in Winston, N. C., Jan. 11, 1887.

Wiley, HARVEY WASHINGTON, chemist; born in Kent, Ind., Oct. 18, 1844; graduated at the Indiana Medical College, 1871; professor of chemistry, Butler University, 1874; of the same, Purdue University, and State chemist, Indiana, 1874–83; chief chemist United States Department of Agriculture, from 1883; and professor of agricultural chemistry, George Washington University, from 1899. Dr. Wiley became widely known as an expert on pure food and drugs, and had much to do with the execution of the federal law against their adulteration. In the summer of 1911 quite a sensation was created when Attorney-General Wickersham recommended to President Taft that Dr. Wiley be permitted to resign his office, and DR. HENRY HURD RUSBY (*q. v.*), the pharmacognosist who had been investigating various food and drug preparations for alleged impurities, be dismissed, Dr. Willard Bell Bigelow, assistant chief of the Bureau of Chemistry, be permitted to resign, and Dr. L. F. Kebler, chief of the drug laboratory, be reduced in rank. A Congressional investigation was immediately started, resulting in startling disclosures of the handicapping of Dr. Wiley in the execution of his official duties. Later, the President called on Secretary Wilson, of the Department of Agriculture, for all papers in the case, and after considering them declared that the Attorney-General had been misled by having only partial evidence before him; upheld Dr. Wiley without a word of criticism, but with much praise; pronounced Dr. Rusby an expert of high standing, whose services the government needed; and directed a slight reprimand for Drs. Bigelow and Kebler for "overzealous" and "disingenuous" conduct. Between the time of the Attorney-General's recommendations and the President's decision, Drs. Wiley and Rusby were given the heartiest support by the people in all parts of the country, and by none more fully so than the reputable manufacturers of food and drug preparations. Neither the action of the President nor the disclosures brought out during the Congressional investigation produced the improvement in the method of executing

the pure food and drug law that Dr. Wiley deemed essential, and, unable longer to endure official restriction of his activities, he resigned his office, March 15, 1912. Dr. Wiley was author of *Songs of Agricultural Chemists; Principles and Practice of Agricultural Chemistry* (3 vols.); *Foods and Their Adulterations;* more than 60 official bulletins while in office; and upward of 250 scientific papers and addresses.

Wilfley, LEBBEUS REDMAN, jurist; born in Audrain county, Mo., March 30, 1866; A.M., Central College, Fayette, Mo., 1889; LL.B., Yale, 1892; LL.D., Clark University, 1909; admitted to the bar, 1893; attorney-general, Philippine Islands, 1901–06; judge United States Court for China, 1906–09; United States delegate to Universal Congress of Lawyers and Jurists, 1904.

Wilgus, HORACE LAFAYETTE, law educator and author; born near Conover, O., April 2, 1859; educated at the Ohio State University; instructor in mathematics there, 1879–81; admitted to the bar, 1884; secretary of faculty and professor of elementary law, Ohio State University, 1891–95; then became professor of law, with special reference to torts and corpus, in the University of Michigan. Works: *Selection of Cases on Evidence; United States Steel Corporation; Cases on the Law of Private Corporations; Should There be a Federal Incorporation Law for Commercial Corporations?* etc.

Wilkerson, JAMES HERBERT, lawyer; born in Savannah, Mo., Dec. 11, 1869; began practice of law in Chicago in 1893; while member of the Illinois house of representatives conducted the movement for a State civil service law, and introduced and secured passage of constitutional amendment for the new charter for Chicago; appointed special attorney for the United States (1906) in prosecutions under the interstate commerce law, especially in case against the Standard Oil Company; special assistant to the United States Attorney-General (1910) in prosecution of the MEAT TRUST (*q. v.*); became United States attorney for the Northern District of Illinois in 1911.

Wilkes, CHARLES, naval officer; born in New York City, April 3, 1798; entered the navy in 1818. In 1830 he was appointed to the department of charts and instruments. He commanded the squadron that sailed from Norfolk, Va., Aug. 18, 1838, on an exploring expedition, and for his discoveries during that cruise Wilkes received a gold medal from the London Geographical Society. He returned to New York in June, 1842. In 1861 he was sent to the West Indies, in the frigate *San Jacinto,* to look after the Confederate cruiser *Sumter,* when he fell in with the British steamer *Trent* and took from her JAMES M. MASON and JOHN SLIDELL (*qq. v.*), and conveyed them to Boston, for which he was thanked by Congress and received popular applause. But the President finally disapproved his act, as a stroke of state policy. In 1862 he commanded the flotilla on the James River, with the rank of commodore; and afterwards, in command of a squadron in the West Indies, captured many blockade-runners. He was retired in 1864 and promoted rear-admiral in 1866. He died in Washington, D. C., Feb. 8, 1877. His publications include a *Narrative* of his exploring expedition, and *Western America, including California and Oregon.*

Wilkes, GEORGE, journalist; born in New York City in 1820; became co-editor of the *Spirit of the Times* in New York. His publications include *History of California, Geographical and Political.* He died in New York City, Sept. 23, 1885.

Wilkes, JOHN, politician; born in London, England, Oct. 17, 1727. He became

JOHN WILKES.

a member of Parliament in 1757. In 1763 he made a severe attack on the govern-

ment in his newspaper (the *North Briton*, No. 45), for which he was sent to the Tower (see NINETY-TWO AND FORTY-FIVE). On account of a licentious essay on woman, he was afterwards expelled from the House of Commons. After his release from the Tower, he went to Paris, and, returning in 1768, sent a letter of submission to the King, and was soon afterwards elected to Parliament for Middlesex; but his seat was successfully contested and he was elected alderman of London. The same year he obtained a verdict of $20,000 against the secretary of state for seizing his papers. In 1771 he was sheriff of London, and in 1774 lord mayor. In 1779 he was made chamberlain, and soon afterwards retired from political life. Wilkes was always the champion of the colonists, and was regarded as the defender of popular rights. He died in London, Dec. 20, 1797.

Wilkie, FRANCIS BANGS, journalist; born in West Charleston, N. Y., in 1832; graduated at Union College in 1857; removed to Davenport, Ia., where he engaged in journalism in 1859. He was connected with the *Herald* in Dubuque till the Civil War began, and then went South as a war correspondent. He established and published for a short time *Our Whole Nation*, in Macon City, Mo., when he became war correspondent of the New York *Times*, and served as such for four years. He wrote for the Chicago *Times* for seventeen years under the name of POLINTO; was the organizer and first president of the Chicago Press Club; and author of *History of Davenport; Walks about Chicago; The History of Great Inventions*, etc. He died in Chicago, Ill., April 12, 1892.

Wilkie, JOHN ELBERT, detective; born in Elgin, Ill., April 27, 1860; was engaged in newspaper work in Chicago in 1877–93 and in 1896–98, and in the latter year was appointed chief of the United States secret service. When it became certain that there would be war with Spain he organized a special emergency force, which arrested the principal Spanish spies in the United States.

Wilkins, ISAAC, clergyman; born in Withywood, Jamaica, W. I., Dec. 17, 1742; graduated at Columbia College in 1760; became a member of the New York colonial legislature in 1772. He supported England prior to the Revolutionary War, and owing to some political pamphlets which he wrote was forced by the Sons of Liberty to flee from the country in 1775. At the conclusion of the war he settled on Long Island, and afterwards studied theology, and was ordained in the Protestant Episcopal Church in 1801. He died in Westchester, N. Y., Feb. 5, 1830.

Wilkins, MARY ELEANOR, author; born in Randolph, Mass., in 1862; educated at Mount Holyoke Seminary. Her works, largely studies of New England life, include *The Adventures of Ann; A New England Nun; A Humble Romance; Young Lucretia; The Portion of Labor; Jerome; Pembroke*, etc. She has also contributed many short stories and poems to magazines.

Wilkins, WILLIAM, statesman; born in Carlisle, Pa., Dec. 20, 1779; admitted to the bar in Pittsburg, Pa., where he practised for many years; was president-judge of the 5th Pennsylvania judicial district in 1820–24, when he was made judge of the United States district court for western Pennsylvania; elected United States Senator in 1831; reported the bill which was adopted by Congress giving the President power to employ the army against the nullification movement (see JACKSON, ANDREW). In 1833 the Pennsylvania electoral vote was cast for him for Vice-President; in 1834 he was made minister to Russia; and on Jan. 19, 1844, Secretary of War. He died in Homewood, Pa., June 23, 1865.

Wilkinson, JAMES, military officer; born in Benedict, Md., in 1757; was preparing for the medical profession when the Revolutionary War broke out. He repaired to Cambridge after the battle of Bunker (Breed's) Hill, where he was made a captain in Reed's New Hampshire regiment in the spring of 1776. He served under Arnold in the Northern army, and in July, 1776, was appointed brigade-major. He was at the battles of Trenton and Princeton, and was made lieutenant-colonel in January, 1777. He was Gates's adjutant-general, and bore to Congress an account of the capture of Burgoyne, when he was brevetted brigadier-general and made secretary to the board of war, of which Gates was president. Being im-

plicated in Conway's cabal he resigned the secretaryship, and in July, 1779, was made clothier-general to the army. At the close of the war he settled in Lexington, Ky., and engaged in mercantile transactions. In 1791–92 he commanded, as lieutenant-colonel of infantry, an expedition against the Indians on the Wabash, and was made brigadier-general in 1792. He was distinguished in command of the right wing of Wayne's army on the Maumee in 1794. In 1796–98 and 1800–12 he was general-in-chief of the army. In December, 1803, as joint-commissioner with Governor Claiborne, he received Louisiana from the French; and from 1805 to 1807 was governor of Louisiana Territory. Wilkinson remained at the head of the Southern Department until his entanglement with Burr caused him to be court-martialled in 1811, when he was honorably acquitted. In 1812 he was brevetted major-general, United States army, and was made a full major-general in 1813. He reduced Mobile in April that year, and fortified Mobile Point; and in May he was ordered to the northern frontier, where he succeeded General Dearborn in command. His campaign against Montreal (1813–14) was totally unsuccessful, chiefly because of the conduct of Gen. Wade Hampton. He relinquished all military command, and on the reduction of the army in 1815 he was discharged. He had become possessed of large estates in Mexico, and removed to that country, where he died near the city of Mexico, Dec. 28, 1825. He published *Memoirs of My Own Times.*

Wilkinson, JOHN, naval officer; born in Norfolk, Va., Nov. 6, 1821; joined the navy in 1837; served on the *Portsmouth* in 1845–46; promoted master in June, 1850, and lieutenant in the following November. He resigned from the National service in 1861 and joined the Confederate navy as a lieutenant; was executive officer of the ram *Louisiana,* which was captured by Farragut in the spring of 1862, when New Orleans fell; was exchanged in the following August and appointed an agent to buy and load a vessel with war materials in England. He purchased the *Giraffe,* with which he ran the blockade at Wilmington, N. C. In 1864 he commanded the *Chickamauga,* with which he destroyed numerous merchant vessels, and in the following year commanded the blockade runner *Chameleon,* in which he sailed to Liverpool, where she was seized by the United States governemnt after the war. Wilkinson published *The Narrative of a Blockade Runner.*

Willard, ABIJAH, military officer; born in Lancaster, Mass., in 1722; was made a "mandamus" councillor in 1774, which caused him to be an object of public opprobrium; was arrested in Union, Conn., but by signing a declaration made by his captors he was liberated. He was proscribed and exiled in 1778; was in New York City in July, 1783, and with fifty-four others petitioned Sir Guy Carleton for land grants in Nova Scotia. These petitioners were designated as the Fifty-five. Willard later settled in New Brunswick. He died in Lancaster, New Brunswick, in 1789.

Willard, EMMA, educator; born in Berlin, Conn., Feb. 23, 1787; descended from Thomas Hooker, founder of Hartford, Conn.; began teaching at sixteen years of age, and was principal, sucessively, of different academies. In 1809, at Middlebury, Vt., she married Dr. John Willard. In 1821 she established her famous female seminary, at Troy, N. Y., which she conducted until 1839. She made a tour in Europe in 1830, and published her *Journal and Letters* on her return, in 1833, and devoted her share of the profits of the work to the maintenance of a school for women in Greece, which was founded mainly by her exertions. Mrs. Willard wrote and published essays on *Female Education;* also several books, chiefly on history. She also published two books on physiology, and a volume of poems. Her ocean-hymn, *Rocked in the Cradle of the Deep,* has always been very popular. She died in Troy, N. Y., April 15, 1870.

Willard, FRANCES ELIZABETH, reformer; born in Churchville, N. Y., Sept. 28, 1839; graduated at the Northwestern Female College in 1858; was for some years a school-teacher in various Western towns, and taught the natural sciences in the Northwestern College. In 1867 she became preceptress in the Genesee Wesleyan Seminary, at Lima, N. Y. On Feb. 14, 1871, she was elected president of

the college which had recently been established in connection with the Northwestern University of the Methodist denomination, in deference to the popular idea of the co-education of the sexes. It was the first time such an honor was conferred upon a woman. On her return from an extended foreign tour in Europe, Syria, and Egypt, in 1871, Miss Willard lectured with success, in Chicago, on the *Educational Aspects of the Woman Question.* She was president of the National Woman's Christian Temperance Union from 1879 till her death; founded the World's Christian Temperance Union in 1883; became president of the American branch of the international council of women in 1888; and was chief of the women's committee on temperance meetings at the World's Columbian Exposition in 1893. She died in New York City, Feb. 18, 1898.

Willard, Joseph, author; born in Cambridge, Mass., March 14, 1798; graduated at Harvard College in 1816; admitted to the bar and began practice in Waltham, Mass.; settled in Boston in 1829; appointed master of chancery in 1838; and was elected clerk of the Superior Court in 1856 and 1861. His publications include *Topographical and Historical Sketches of the Town of Lancaster, Mass., with an Appendix; Naturalization in the American Colonies; Letter to an English Friend on the Rebellion in the United States and on the British Policy,* etc. He died in Boston, Mass., May 12, 1865.

Willard, Samuel, clergyman; born in Concord, Mass. Jan. 31, 1640; graduated at Harvard College in 1659; studied theology and was minister in Groton in 1663–76, when he was driven away by King Philip's War; was pastor of Old South Church, Boston, in 1678; opposed the witchcraft delusions of 1692; and was vice-president and acting president of Harvard College from 1701 till his death, in Boston, Sept. 12, 1707.

Willard, Solomon, architect; born in Petersham, Mass., June 26, 1783; removed to Boston in 1804, and there became a skilled wood-carver. In 1815 he turned his attention to carving in stone and was engaged to ornament many of the public buildings in Boston; was selected as architect and superintendent of the Bunker Hill Monument, Nov. 2, 1825. He completed this work July 23, 1842, and in the following year, on the anniversary of the battle, a celebration was held in which the President of the United States and his cabinet and citizens from all parts of the country participated. He introduced the first granite paving-stones ever used in Boston, and proved the value of granite as a building material. He died in Quincy, Mass., Feb. 27, 1862.

Willard, Sylvester David, physician; born in Wilton, Conn., June 19, 1825; graduated at the Albany Medical College in 1848; was a volunteer surgeon in the National army in 1862–65. In the latter year, just prior to his death, he was instrumental in having a bill for the erection of an asylum for the poor insane introduced into the New York State Senate. This was passed and the institution, which is one of the largest of its kind in the United States, was named the Willard Asylum for the Insane. In 1857–65 Dr. Willard was secretary of the New York Medical Society, and editor of its *Transactions.* His publications include *Historical Address; Biographical Memoirs of Physicians of Albany County; Annals of the Medical Society of the County of Albany, 1800–51, with Biographical Sketches,* etc. He died in Albany, N. Y., April 2, 1865.

Willcox, Orlando Bolivar, military officer; born in Detroit, Mich., April 16, 1823; graduated at West Point in 1847; served in Texas and in Florida, and resigned in 1857. In May, 1861, he became colonel of the 1st Michigan Infantry, and was the first to arrive at Washington, D. C., after the call of the President in April, 1861. With Colonel Ellsworth he took possession of Alexandria. He commanded a brigade in the battle of Bull Run, where he was severely wounded and made prisoner. On his exchange in 1862 he was made brigadier-general of volunteers, his commission dating from July 21, 1861. He was active in the Army of the Potomac until after the battle at Fredericksburg, and was temporarily in command of the 9th Army Corps in central Kentucky. In 1863–64 he was engaged in eastern Tennessee; and in the Richmond campaign, ending in the surrender of Lee, he commanded a division in the 9th Corps. In March, 1865, he was brevetted major-

general. In 1887 he was retired. He died in Coburg, Ontario, Canada, May 10, 1907.

Willett, MARINUS, military officer; born in Jamaica, L. I., July 31, 1740; graduated at King's College in 1775; he served under Abercrombie in the attack on Ticonderoga, and was with Bradstreet in the expedition against Fort Frontenac. He was one of the most conspicuous of

MARINUS WILLETT.

the New York Sons of Liberty. In 1775 he entered McDougall's regiment as captain, and joined Montgomery in the invasion of Canada. After the capture of St. John he remained there, in command, until January, 1776, and was soon afterwards made lieutenant-colonel of the 3d New York Regiment. In May, 1777, he was ordered to Fort Stanwix, and assisted in its defence in August following, making a successful sortie to effect a diversion in favor of General Herkimer (see ORISKANY, BATTLE OF). He bore a message, by stealth, to General Schuyler, which led to the expedition up the Mohawk Valley, under General Arnold, that caused the abandonment of the siege of Fort Stanwix. He joined the army under Washington in June, 1776, and was in the battle of Monmouth; and in 1779 he accompanied General Sullivan's expedition against the Indians in New York. At the close of the war he was chosen sheriff of the city of New York, and remained so eight years (1784–92), and was mayor in 1807. In 1792 he was appointed a brigadier-general in the army intended to act against the Northwestern Indians, but declined. He published an autobiography. He died in New York City, Aug. 22, 1830.

Willett's Point, a fortified post of the United States; on the north shore of Long Island, between Great and Little Neck bays and Long Island Sound; opposite Fort Schuyler, and 20 miles from the Battery, New York City. The defensive works were begun in 1862 on a tract of 136 acres. In recent years the post has been used almost exclusively as a depot for engineer stores, and as the headquarters of a battalion of engineers. A special training in electrical engineering is here given young officers.

Willey, BENJAMIN GLAZIER, author; born in Conway, N. H., Feb. 1, 1796; graduated at Bowdoin College in 1822; studied theology and was installed as associate pastor with the Rev. Asa Cummings in 1824; held subsequent charges in East Sumner, Me., and in Milton and Farmington, N. H. He was the author of *Incidents in the White Mountains*, which after his death was republished under the title, *History of the White Mountains, together with many Interesting Anecdotes, Illustrating Life in the Backwoods.* He died in East Sumner, Me., April 17, 1867.

William III. (WILLIAM HENRY, PRINCE OF ORANGE), King of England and Stadtholder of Holland; born in The Hague, Nov. 4, 1650; was a nephew of Charles II. and James II., and married his cousin Mary, daughter of James. The union was popular in both countries. The Prince, a member of whose house (of Orange) had freed his country from the Spanish yoke, was regarded as the head of the Protestant party in Europe, and his wife expected to succeed to the English throne. His policy always was to lessen the power of France, whose monarch, Louis XIV., was regarded as the most powerful enemy of Protestantism in Europe. The policy of James on the throne was to increas the papal power, and a breach between the King and his Dutch son-in-law was

inevitable. The people of England finally rose in their might and invited William to invade the country. It was done in 1688. He and his wife were made joint monarchs of England in February, 1689, by a special convention. His cause was equally triumphant in Scotland, after some trouble at the beginning, and he joined a coalition of European states in making war on France. The adherents of James in Ireland were numerous, and were supported by the French. In 1690 he took command of his own troops there, and, at the battle of the Boyne, July 1 (O. S.), James, who led the insurgents, was defeated and fled to France. The war continued till 1697, when the treaty at Ryswick ended it. Queen Mary died late in 1694, when William became sole monarch. He instituted salutary reforms in England, and the English constitution was placed on a firm basis. He labored to check the power of France and increase that of the Netherlands as long as he lived. His death was caused by being thrown from his horse. Having no heir,

WILLIAM III., PRINCE OF ORANGE.

he promoted the act of settlement, calling the house of Hanover to the throne, which was adopted by Parliament in 1701, and completed the English revolution. He died in Kensington, March 8, 1702. See WILLIAM'S WAR, KING.

William and Mary, COLLEGE OF, the second of the higher institutions of learning established in the English-American colonies. An effort was made in 1619 to establish a college in Virginia, but the massacre in 1622 put an end to the enterprise. In 1660–61 the General Assembly of Virginia passed an act for the establishment and endowment of a college, and in 1693 a charter was obtained from the crown of England, chiefly through the efforts of Rev. James Blair and of Lieutenant-Governor Nicholson. It was named William and Mary, in compliment to the ruling sovereigns, who made appropriations for its support. Buildings designed by Sir Christopher Wren were erected at the Middle Plantation, which was named Williamsburg. The first college edifice was destroyed by fire in 1705 and was rebuilt soon afterwards. The General Assembly and individuals made liberal gifts to the institution from time to time, and in 1776 it was the wealthiest college in America. Its riches were wasted during the Revolutionary War, its resources being reduced to $2,500 and the then unproductive revenue granted by the crown. The college was closed in 1781, and American and French troops alternately occupied it, during which time the president's house and a wing of the main building were burned. After the Revolution, the General Assembly gave lands to the college, and its organization was changed. In 1859 the college building, with the library, was consumed by fire, but was rebuilt and restored before the close of 1860. The college exercises were suspended in 1861, in consequence of the Civil War, and at one time the building was occupied as barracks and at another as a hospital. During the occupation of Williamsburg by Union troops in 1862, it was again accidentally burned. From 1861 to 1865 the losses of the college, in buildings and endowments, were about $125,000. In 1869 the main building was substantially restored, the faculty was reorganized, and the college was reopened for students. The college has grounds and buildings valued at over $200,000; endowment funds, $153,000; volumes in the library, 16,000; average number of faculty, 20; average student attendance, 240.

On Oct. 22, 1901, a tablet, erected to the memory of John Blair, the founder and first president of William and Mary College, and to the seventeen Virginia gentlemen who were his associates in the establishment of the institution in 1693, was unveiled by the Colonial Dames of

WILLIAM AND MARY COLLEGE IN 1723.

Virginia. The tablet is of Florentine marble, fashioned in a style to correspond with the date of the foundation of the college. The armorial bearings awarded the college by the college of heralds of England are placed upon the tablet. William and Mary is the only American college to possess this distinction.

WILLIAM AND MARY, FORT

William and Mary, FORT. The following description of a little-known incident in the Revolutionary War was written by Ballard Smith, former editor of the New York *World:*

It is a curious fact that the most important as well as the most dramatic incident immediately preceding the American Revolution — an incident, indeed, which directly precipitated hostilities— has but slighting mention in any of the histories. It may be well doubted whether even one in every hundred thousand Americans could recall any of the circumstances of this noteworthy event.

This was the attack upon Fort William and Mary in Portsmouth Harbor by a band of young patriots led by John Sullivan, afterwards major-general in the Continental army. The assault was made in December, 1774, four months before the battle of Lexington, and six months before Bunker Hill. It was unquestionably the first act of overt treason. Singularly enough, however, Bancroft makes but a casual reference to it, and in none of the histories is it given more than a paragraph. Yet its immediate consequences were not less momentous than those of Lexington. It was, in fact, the occasion of the conflict at Lexington, and it is more than probable that it saved Bunker Hill from proving a disastrous defeat, if not, indeed, a calamity fatal to further effort for freedom.

Amory's only reference to it in his *Military Services of General Sullivan* is this: "Soon after his return home [Sullivan had been a delegate to the Continental Congress] he planned with Thomas Pickering and John Langdon an attack, on the night of the 12th of December, upon Fort William and Mary, at Newcastle, in Portsmouth Harbor—one of the earliest acts of hostility against the mother-country; and, by the aid of a portion of a force he had been for some months engaged in drilling in their military exercises in preparation for the anticipated conflict, carried ninety-seven kegs of powder and a quantity of small-arms in gondolas to Durham, where they were concealed, in part, under the pulpit of its meeting-house. Soon after the battles of Lexington and Concord had aroused the people to a realizing sense that they were actually engaged in hostilities, these much-needed supplies, or a portion of them, were brought by him to the lines at Cambridge, where he marched with his company, and were used at the battle of Bunker Hill."

This account is in some respects clearly inaccurate, and it is altogether incommensurate with the importance of the act. The assault was made, not on the 12th, but on the night of the 13th or 14th of December—for there is some conflict of authority on this point, and there is nothing to show that any act of treasonable hostility preceded it. Sparks, in his *Life of Sullivan,* gives practically the same details, and Bancroft, Botta, and Bryant make only an allusion to the event. In the course of several papers read before the Massachusetts Historical Society, defending Sullivan from aspersions of subsequent disloyalty to the American cause, Mr. Thomas C. Amory, of Boston, who is a grandnephew of the general, furnishes many additional and interesting particulars besides those already quoted; but none of these writers has correlated the facts of the attack, and the exceedingly momentous consequences that directly proceeded from it.

The little village of Durham, New Hampshire, clusters about the falls of the Oyster River, a tide-water stream that ebbs and flows through the broad and picturesque Piscataqua into Portsmouth Harbor. A century ago Durham was a flourishing ship-building town, on the highway to Portsmouth, and a "bathing-place" for the stage from Boston to Port-

land. Then a long bridge spanned the reach where the waters of the Oyster River and of the "Great Bay" debouch into the Piscataqua. The bridge was carried away by the ice in the first quarter of the century. Another was built from Dover Point, the course of the highway was changed, the neighboring forests were exhausted, and the shipwrights moved up to the Maine coast. The village fell into a sleep from which it will probably never awaken; but one house, built more than a hundred years ago, still crowns one of the village hills, and before it grateful America should erect a monument, for in that house was planned the initial movement of the Revolution. On the proper site for such a monument was buried a store of powder, which, carted down to Charlestown, saved the wearied battalions of Prescott and Stark from capture or annihilation.

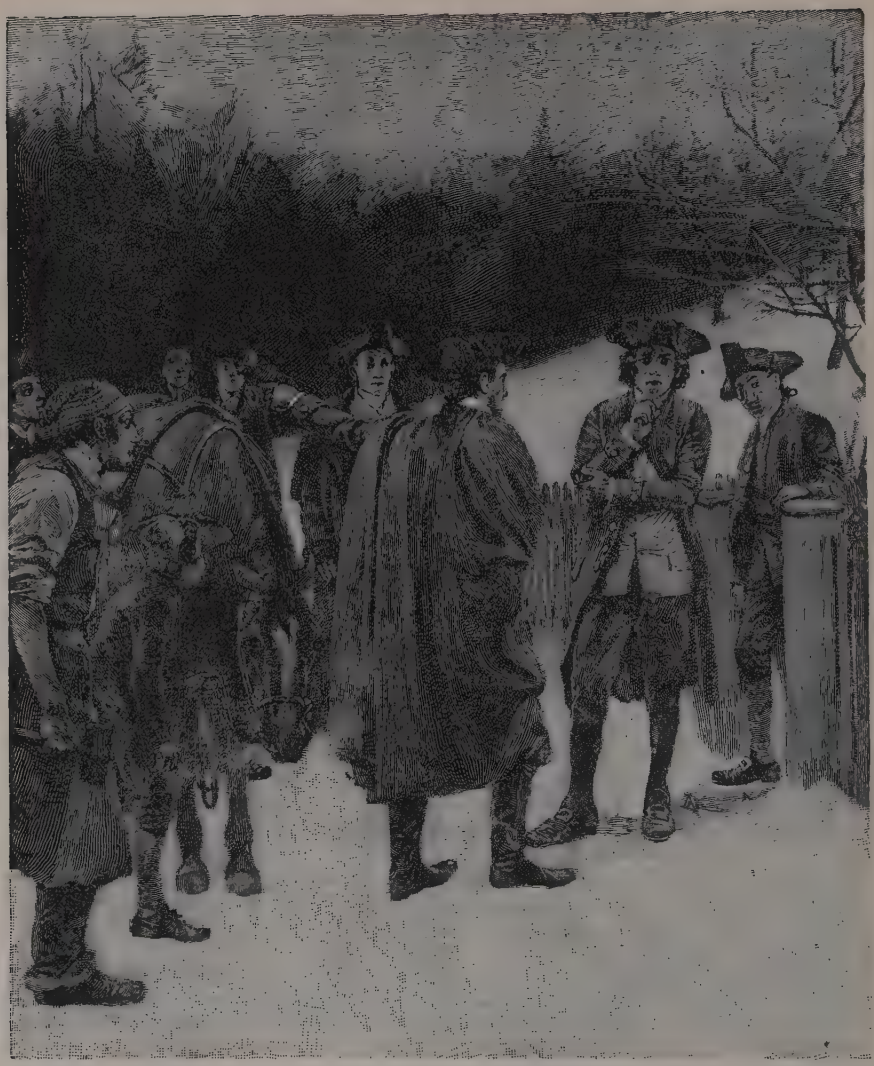
Sullivan was born at Somerworth, New Hampshire, in 1740. His father was in the Pretender's service, and fled from Ireland to America. His mother also emigrated from Ireland when a young girl. During the voyage a passenger laughingly asked of her, "And what do you expect to do over in America?"

"Do?" was the reply; "why, raise governors for them, sure." (One of her sons was governor of Massachusetts; a grandson was governor of Maine, another was only lately a United States Senator from New Hampshire, and still another was lieutenant-governor of Illinois.)

The most famous of her sons, John Sullivan, was married at twenty, and opened a law office in Durham. There were then but two lawyers in the entire colony. The profession was apparently not regarded with favor, for, on the coming of Sullivan, it is a tradition that the good citizens about Durham Falls resisted his settlement among them with prompt vigor. They gathered about his house one bright evening and threatened to tear it down if he did not promise to leave. Haranguing them from an upper window, Sullivan offered to submit the question to the test of single combat. It will be remembered that New Hampshire alone of the New England colonies was settled, not by the Puritans, but by needy sons of the Cavaliers—sent out with Capt. John Smith on his first voyage to these shores. There was doubtless a survival of the chivalric spirit of the tournament among the young fellows of the village, and the challenge was accepted. But John Sullivan was renowned for his strength, and it was found that no fitting opponent could be secured. Then James Sullivan—afterwards successively judge, attorney-general, and governor of Massachusetts—volunteered in his brother's stead, the battle was fought, and James was victor. John remained to do great honor to his adopted home; but, as John Adams afterwards wrote of him that his profession had yielded him a fortune of £10,000, perhaps the fears of his village neighbors were not so groundless after all.

From the beginning of the controversies between the colonies and the mother-country, Sullivan took a most active share in the discussions, and, when the time came, was even more prominent in action. For at least a year before Lexington it is clear that he considered an armed conflict to be inevitable. He had held a royal commission on Governor Wentworth's staff, and had gathered about him and drilled thoroughly a company of young men in and about the village. In the spring of 1774 he was sent as a delegate from New Hampshire to the Congress. Returning in September, it seems that he believed the appeal to arms could not much longer be delayed.

On the afternoon of December 13, Paul Revere (the same who escaped the vigilance of Howe's guards four months later, and spread the news along the road from Boston to Lexington of Pitcairn's intended march) rode up to Sullivan's house in Durham. One of the survivors of Sullivan's company died only some thirty years ago, and from his lips, shortly before his death, was obtained the story of what happened that day. Revere's horse, he said, was "nearly done" when pulled up at Sullivan's door. The rider had been despatched with all speed from Boston the day before with messages from the Massachusetts committee of safety that "the King in council had prohibited the importation of arms or military stores into the colonies," and that two regiments were forthwith to



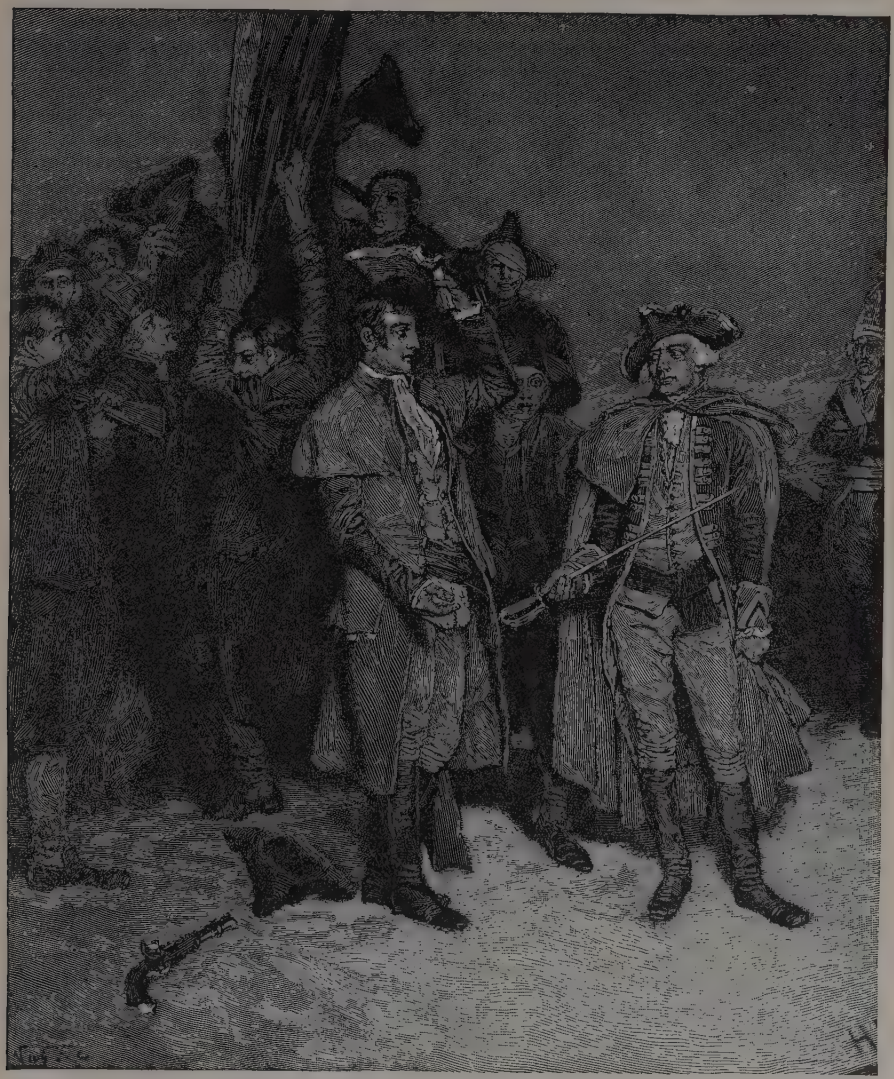
PAUL REVERE BRINGING NEWS TO SULLIVAN.

march from Boston to occupy Portsmouth and the fort in its harbor. After "baiting" his wearied beast, Revere rode on to Portsmouth.

In Sullivan's mind the hour had evidently come for decisive action. The story of what followed is briefly told by Eleazer Bennett, the survivor before mentioned: "I was working for Major Sullivan," he said, "when Micah Davis came up and told me Major Sullivan wanted me to go to Portsmouth, and to get all the men I could to go with him. The men who went, as far as I can remember, were Maj. John Sullivan, Capt. Winborn Adams, Ebenezer Thompson, John Demeritt, Alpheus and Jonathan Chesley, John Spencer, Micah Davis, Isaac and Benjamin Small, of Durham; Ebenezer Sullivan, Captain Langdon, and Thomas Pick-

ering, of Portsmouth; John Griffin, James Underwood, and Alexander Scammell. We took a gondola belonging to Benjamin Mathes, who was too old to go, and went down the river to Portsmouth. It was a clear, cold, moonlight night. We sailed down to the fort at the mouth of Piscataqua Harbor. The water was so shallow that we could not bring the boat to within a rod or shore. We waded through the water in perfect silence, mounted the fort, surprised the garrison, and bound the captain. In the fort we found 100 casks of powder and 100 small-arms, which we brought down to the boat. In wading through the water it froze upon us."

What a simple story of heroism! The



THE SURRENDER OF FORT WILLIAM AND MARY.

TRANSPORTING POWDER FROM THE FORT.

men took off their boots that they might not make a noise in mounting the ramparts, and after getting back to the boat it is of record that they again took them off, "lest a spark from the iron-nailed soles might ignite the powder." And this was in December, in the severe winter of northern New England.

The "gondola"—pronounced by the natives gundolo, with accent on the first syllable — is an unwieldly, sloop-rigged vessel, still in use in the shallow waters of the New England coast. It is apparently named on the *lucus a non lucendo* principle, being of almost the exact shape of an old-fashioned wooden kneading-dish —broad and flat-bottomed—with bow and stern but little rounded, and carrying a large lateen-sail. Not possibly could a boat be constructed more unlike the gondola of the Venetian canals. The "gundolo" sailed quietly down with the tide to a dock in Portsmouth town, 9 miles below. There perhaps half a dozen men were taken on board, including Captain Langdon, afterwards first president of the United States Senate and governor of New Hampshire. From Governor Wentworth's correspondence with the Earl of Dartmouth it would appear that he warned Captain Cochran, in command at the fort, of the intended attack; but it is a tradition in Durham that the garrison was awakened from sleep as the party mounted the ramparts. No blood was shed on either side. In his letter to Lord Dartmouth, Sir John (Governor) Wentworth gives some further details. "News was brought to me," he says, "that a drum was beating about the town to collect the populace together in order to take away the gunpowder and dismantle the fort. I sent the chief-justice to them to warn them from engaging in such an attempt. He went to them, told them it was not short of rebellion, and entreated them to desist from it and disperse. But all to no purpose. They went to the island. They forced an entrance in spite of Captain Cochran, who defended it as long as he could. They secured the captain, triumphantly gave three huzzas, and hauled down the King's colors." Captain Cochran made his re-

port. "I told them," he wrote, "on their peril not to enter. They replied they would. I immediately ordered three 4-pounders to be fired on them, and then the small-arms, and before we could be ready to fire again we were stormed on all quarters, and immediately they secured me and my men, and kept us prisoners about an hour and a half, during which time they broke open the powder-house, and took all the powder away except one barrel."

The powder being loaded aboard the "gundolo," the vessel was sailed back to Durham on the flood tide, arriving in the early morning. The larger part of the powder was buried under the pulpit of the old "meeting-house" in front of Major Sullivan's residence—under the pulpit from which venerable Parson Adams had for years back been inculcating lessons of patriotism. Two or there mounds still exist to show where the foundations of this church were laid. Over against the now vacant space, and in a little plot adjoining Sullivan's former residence, a plain marble slab gives token that the remains of the soldier-statesman were buried there.

The captured powder, as before intimated, played an important part at the battle of Bunker Hill. In the Continental army gathered about Boston there was a terrible lack of ammunition. "It is a fact," says Bancroft, referring to the day before Prescott occupied Breed's Hill, "that the Americans, after collecting all the ammunition north of the Delaware, had in their magazine, for an army engaged in a siege and preparing for fight, no more than twenty-seven and a half barrels [kegs?] of powder, with a gift from Connecticut of thirty-six and a half barrels more." When, as the British were forming for a decisive charge on his hotly defended works, Prescott discovered that he had barely one round of ammunition among his men, and gave the order to retreat, both his and Stark's men would undoubtedly have been cut to pieces or captured except for the galling fire with which Stark, from behind the

X. – 27. BRINGING THE POWDER TO BUNKER HILL.

grass-stuffed fence on Bunker Hill, met the Welsh Fusileers who were marching to cut off the retreat to Cambridge. It is of tradition and some part of record that, until within even a few moments of the fusileers' charge, Stark was no better equipped with ammunition than was Prescott. But an ample supply of powder arrived in the nick of time. It had been brought over from Durham, 60 miles away, in old John Demeritt's ox-cart, and it was a part of the store that had been buried under Parson Adams's pulpit. Failing it, Prescott might on that day have shared the martyrdom of Warren, and Molly Stark might indeed have been a widow that night.

It is interesting to note in Sullivan's correspondence that this lack of ammunition was a grievous care to Washington after he took command. Later on in the campaign Sullivan wrote to the New Hampshire committee of safety: "General Washington has, I presume, already written you on the subject of this letter. We all rely upon your keeping both the contents of his letter and mine a profound secret. We had a general council day before yesterday, and, to our great surprise, discovered that we had not powder enough to furnish half a pound a man, exclusive of what the people have in their powder-horns and cartridge-boxes. . . . The general was so struck that he did not say a word for half an hour. Should this matter take air before a supply arrives, our army is ruined." There is apparently no record to show whether or not the New Hampshire committee responded to the call, but as old Mr. Demeritt took to Cambridge only a part of the store captured at William and Mary, it is possible that Sullivan's daring assault of the December before again served the American troops in good stead.

That act was by no means passed unnoticed by the royal authorities either at home or in the colonies. Governor Wentworth promptly issued a proclamation, "declaring the offenders guilty of treason, and offering a reward for their apprehension." But the defiant citizens of Durham "moved in procession to the common near the meeting-house, where they kindled a bonfire, and burned the commissions, uniforms, and all other insignia connecting them in any way with the royal government." And, for his part, Sullivan was no less contumacious. On December 24 he published a stirring address to the people of the province. Referring to the order which had led to his attack on the fort, he said: "I am far from wishing hostilities to commence on the part of America, but still hope that no person will at this important crisis be unprepared to act in his own defence should he be by necessity driven thereto. And I must here beg leave to recommend to the consideration of the people on this continent whether, when we are by an arbitrary decree prohibited the having of arms and ammunition by importation, we have not, by the law of self-preservation, a right to seize upon those within our power, in order to defend the liberties which God and nature have given us."

The news of the assault caused the greatest excitement in England. Parliament almost at once adopted the address to the King, which was practically a declaration of war, and which was presented on Feb. 9, 1775. "The King in his reply," says Bancroft, "pledged himself speedily and effectually to enforce obedience to the laws and the authority of the supreme legislature. His heart was hardened. Having just heard of the seizure of ammunition at the fort in New Hampshire, he intended that his 'language should open the eyes of the deluded Americans.'" Thus, while war was doubtless ultimately inevitable, Sullivan's bold action was the immediate cause that led to it. Orders were forthwith despatched from London to seize all arms to be found in the colonies, and Pitcairn's march to Lexington was the result.

Sullivan was the first man in active rebellion against the British government, and he drew with him the province he lived in. In a recent address on the history of that part of New Hampshire, the Rev. Dr. Quint, of Dover, referred briefly to the attack on the fort. "The daring character of this assault," he said, "cannot be over-estimated. It was an organized investment of a royal fortress where the King's flag was flying, and where the King's garrison met them with muskets and artillery. It was four months before

Lexington, and Lexington was resistance to attack, while this was deliberate assault."

On Dec. 13, when Paul Revere rode through Durham, there was a young student in Sullivan's law office named Alexander Scammell. He accompanied his chief on the expedition to William and Mary, and it was he who pulled down the King's colors from over the fort. He became the adjutant-general of the army, was beloved by Washington as was no other man in the command, and, it is said, no other person's quips and jokes ever brought a smile to that grave countenance during the progress of the war. Scammell fell at Yorktown almost as Cornwallis was laying down his arms. Thus, a participant in the first act of the rebellion, he died as that rebellion was crowned with perfect and fateful victory. It was a noble span of patriotic service.

William Henry, Fort, Capture of. Montcalm left Ticonderoga towards the close of July, 1757, with nearly 9,000 men, of whom about 2,000 were Indians, and moved against Fort William Henry, built by Sir William Johnson, at the head of Lake George. It was garrisoned by about 3,000 troops, under Colonel Munro, a brave English officer, who felt strong in his position because of the close proximity of 4,000 English troops, under General Webb, at Fort Edward, only 15 miles distant. Webb was Munro's commanding general. When Montcalm demanded (Aug. 1) the surrender of the post and garrison, the colonel refused, and sent an express to General Webb for aid. For six days Montcalm continued the siege, and daily expresses were sent to Webb asking aid, but none was furnished. One day General Johnson, with a corps of provincials and Putnam's Rangers, had marched a few miles in that direction, when they were recalled, and Webb sent a letter to Munro advising him to surrender. This letter was intercepted, and Montcalm sent it to Munro, with a peremptory demand for his instant surrender. Perceiving further resistance to be useless, for his ammunition was exhausted, he yielded, Montcalm agreeing to an honorable surrender and a safe escort of the troops to Fort Edward. The Indians were disappointed, for they expected blood and booty. When the English had entered the woods a mile from Fort William Henry, the savages fell upon them, and slew a large number of men, women, and children, before Montcalm could stay the slaughter. The Indians pursued the terrified garrison (plundering them in their flight) to within about cannon-shot of Fort Edward. Then Fort William Henry and all its appendages were destroyed, and it was never rebuilt.

PLAN OF FORT WILLIAM HENRY.

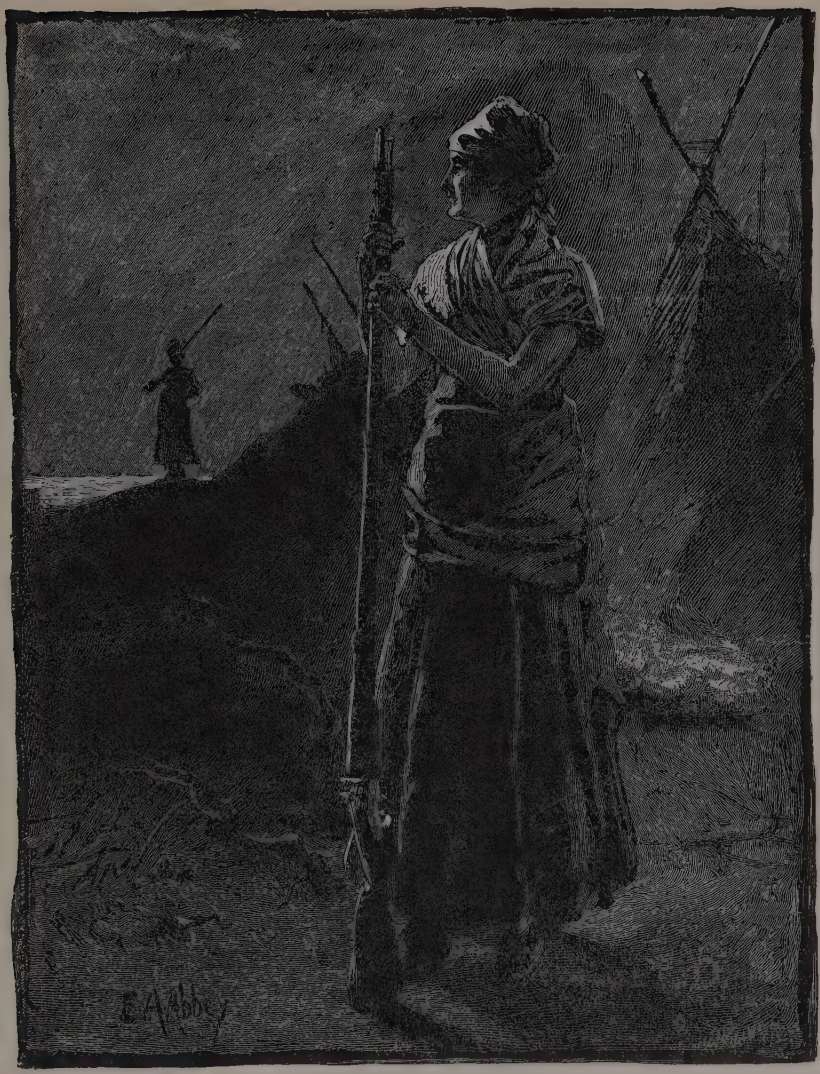
A, dock; B, garrison gardens; C, Fort William Henry; D, morass; E, Montcalm's 1st battery of nine guns and two mortars; F, Montcalm's 2d battery of ten guns and three mortars; G, Montcalm's approaches; H, two intended batteries; I, place where Montcalm landed his artillery; K, Montcalm's camp, with the main body of the army; L, M. de Levy's camp—4,000 regulars and Canadians; M, M. de la Corne, with 1,500 Canadians and Indians; N, English encampment before the retrenchment was made; O, the bridge over the morass; P, the English retrenchment.

Subsequently a hotel was built on its site. The fall of that fort caused greater alarm in the colonies than the loss of Oswego the year before.

William's War, King, the first inter-colonial war in America, so-called because it occurred at the beginning of the reign of William and Mary, and continued seven years. The accession of these Protestant monarchs caused disaster to the more northerly English-American colonists, for, the French King having espoused the cause of James, war between England and France soon began, and extended to their respective colonies in America. When the declaration of war between the two nations reached America, the eastern Indians were easily excited to make war by the Baron de Castine, seated at the mouth of the Penobscot, and the Jesuit missionaries among the Indians. The recent revocation of the Edict of Nantes had kindled fiercely the fires of persecution in France (see Edict of Nantes), and the heat was felt in America. Through these Jesuits, the Indians were made allies of the French and the two races were frequently found on the war-path together, accompanied by a father confessor.

The Indians, remembering the treachery of Major Waldron, at Dover, fearfully slaked their thirst for vengeance there. It was the first town attacked (July 7, 1689), when the venerable Major Waldron and twenty others of the garrison were killed, and twenty-nine made captives and sold as servants to the French in Canada. Instigated by Father Thury, a Jesuit, an Indian war-party fell (Aug. 12) upon the English stockade at Pemmaquid, built by Andros, and captured the garrison. A few months later Frontenac, governor of Canada, sent a party of 300 French and Indian warriors from Montreal to penetrate the country towards Albany. On a gloomy night in the winter (Feb. 18, 1690), when the snow lay 20 inches deep in the Mohawk Valley, they fell upon the frontier town of Schenectady (*q. v.*), massacred many of the people, and burned the village. Early in the spring Salmon Falls, near Piscataqua, was surprised (March 28) and thirty of its inhabitants were killed; and the attacking party, on its way homeward, met a third party that

THE DEATH OF MAJOR WALDRON.



WOMEN SETTLERS STANDING GUARD.

had come from Quebec and joined them in destroying the fort and settlement at Casco, where a similar attack had been repulsed by the famous Captain Church. Other eastern villages suffered. All the colonies were aroused by these atrocities, and the New England people resolved on speedy retaliation.

In May (1690) Massachusetts fitted out an expedition under Sir William Phipps, who, with nine vessels and 800 men, seized Port Royal, in ACADIA (*q. v.*), and obtained sufficient plunder there to pay the expenses of the enterprise. In June, Port Royal was again plundered by English privateers from the West Indies. Then the colonies of New England and New York joined in efforts to conquer Canada. A land and naval expedition was arranged, the former commanded by a

son of Governor Winthrop, of Connecticut, to go from New York by way of Lake Champlain to attack Montreal; and the latter, fitted out by Massachusetts alone, and commanded by Sir William Phipps, to attack Quebec. Phipps's armament consisted of thirty-four vessels and 2,000 men. The expenses of the land expedition were borne jointly by Connecticut and New York. Both were unsuccessful. Some of Winthrop's troops, with Iroquois warriors under Colonel Schuyler, pushed towards the St. Lawrence and were repulsed (August, 1690) by Frontenac. The remainder did not go farther than the head of Lake Champlain.

Phipps reached Quebec at about the middle of October, landed some of his troops near, but, finding the city too strongly fortified to warrant a siege, he returned to Boston before the winter set in. Having no chart to guide him, Phipps had been nine weeks cautiously making his way around Acadia and up the St. Lawrence. Massachusetts was compelled to issue bills of credit, or paper money, to defray the expenses of the expedition. Fierce forays by the French and Indians continued along the New England frontiers. The English were held up to the Indians by the Jesuits not only as enemies, but as heretics, upon whom it was a Christian duty to make war. The Indians were encouraged, too, to make forays for the capture of women and children, for whom they found a ready market, as servants, in Canada. About 100 persons were killed or made captive (July 28, 1694) at Durham, 10 miles from Portsmouth. Two years later Baron de Castine and a large force of French and Indians captured the garrison at Pemmaquid. Haverhill, 33 miles from Boston, was attacked (March, 1697), and forty persons were killed or made captive; and during the ensuing summer more remote settlements suffered greatly. This distressing warfare was closed the same year by the treaty of Ryswick, Sept. 20, 1697.

Williams, ALPHEUS STARKEY, military officer; born in Saybrook, Conn., Sept. 10, 1810; graduated at Yale College in 1831; practised law in Detroit; and was editor of the Detroit *Advertiser* for a while. He served in the war with Mexico; was postmaster of Detroit (1849–53), and, made brigadier-general of volunteers in May, 1861, he organized the Michigan volunteers until September. In March, 1862, he became commander of a division in General Banks's corps, and at the battle of Cedar Mountain one-third of his division was killed or wounded. He commanded a division in Slocum's corps at Antietam, Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, and Gettysburg. In the Atlanta campaign he was conspicuous, and in November, 1864, succeeded Slocum in command of the 20th Corps, leading it in the celebrated march to the sea and through the Carolinas. From 1866 to 1869 he was minister to San Salvador, and from 1874 till his death, in Washington, D. C., Dec. 21, 1878, was a member of Congress.

Williams, CATHERINE R., author; born in Providence, R. I., presumably in 1787; married Mr. Williams in 1818. Her publications include *Tales, National and Rev-*

OLD FORT FREDERICK AT PEMMAQUID.

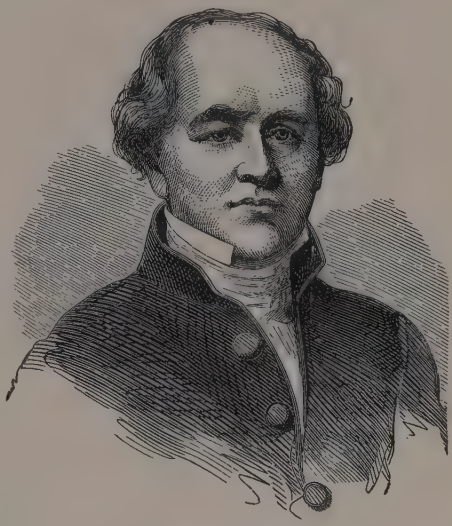
olutionary; Fall River, an Authentic Narrative; Biography of Revolutionary Heroes; Neutral French, or the Exiles of Nova Scotia; Annals of the Aristocracy of Rhode Island, etc. She died in Providence, R. I., Oct. 11, 1872.

Williams, DAVID, patriot; born in Tarrytown, N. Y., Oct. 21, 1754; joined the American army in 1775; served till 1779, when, owing to badly frozen feet, he was forced to retire from active service. On Sept. 23, 1780, with JOHN PAULDING and ISAAC VAN WART (*qq. v.*) he captured MAJ. JOHN ANDRÉ (*q. v.*), for which he received a congressional medal and later numerous tokens of esteem from his fellow-citizens. New York State erected a monument to his memory near Schoharie court-house. He died near Livingstonville, N. Y., Aug. 2, 1831.

Williams, EDWARD P., naval officer; born in Castine, Me., Feb. 26, 1833; graduated at the United States Naval Academy, June 10, 1853; promoted lieutenant, Sept. 16, 1855, and lieutenant-commander in July, 1862; was one of the volunteers under Admiral Dahlgren to attack Fort Sumter. During that action, on the night of Sept. 8, 1863, he commanded the sailors and marines in the first division of boats; was taken prisoner and held in Columbia, S. C., for a year, till exchanged; promoted commander in July, 1866. He was placed in command of the steamer *Oneida* in the Asiatic fleet. On Jan. 24, 1870, he sailed from Yokohama, and at 6.30 P.M. his vessel collided with the English mail-steamer *Bombay* in Tokio Bay and sank in a few minutes. Twenty-two officers, including Williams, and 115 men were lost.

Williams, EDWIN, author; born in Norwich, Conn., March 7, 1797; settled in New York City, where he served many years as secretary of the American Institute; and was connected with the principal geographical, statistical, and historical societies of the United States. His publications include *The Politician's Manual; New Universal Gazetter; Book of the Constitution; New York as It Is; Arctic Voyages; The Statesman's Manual* (carried on after his death by Benson J. Lossing); *Wheat Trade of the United States and Europe; Presidents of the United States; The Twelve Stars of the Republic,* etc. He died in New York City, Oct. 21, 1854.

Williams, ELEAZAR, the "lost prince." A dark mystery shrouds the fate of the eldest son of Louis XVI. of France and Marie Antoinette, who was eight years of age at the time his father was murdered by the Jacobins. After the downfall of Robespierre and his fellows, it was declared that the prince died in prison in



ELEAZAR WILLIAMS.

1795, while the royalists believed he had been secretly hidden away in the United States. Curious facts and circumstances pointed to Rev. Eleazar Williams, a reputed half-breed Indian, of the Caughnawaga tribe, near Montreal, as the surviving prince, who, for almost sixty years, had been hidden from the world in that disguise. He was a reputed son of Thomas Williams, son of Eunice, the captive daughter of Rev. John Williams, of Deerfield, Mass. He was educated at Long Meadow, Mass., and when the war with England broke out, in 1812, he became confidential agent of the government among the Indians in northern New York. He served in several engagements, and was severely wounded at Plattsburg in 1814. Joining the Protestant Episcopal Church, after the war, he was for a long time a missionary, or lay-reader, among the

Oneida Indians, and in 1826 he was ordained missionary presbyter, and labored in northern New York and Wisconsin. There were indications that Mr. Williams was the "lost prince" of the house of Bourbon, and it was proved, by physiological facts, that he was not possessed of Indian blood. His complexion was dark, but his hair was curly. The claims of Mr. Williams to identity with the dauphin of France were not put forth by himself, but by others. In *Putnam's Monthly Magazine* (1853–54), Rev. Mr. Hanson published a series of papers under the title *Have We a Bourbon Among Us?* and afterwards published them in book form and entitled the volume *The Lost Prince.* Mr. Hanson fortified the claim to identity by most remarkable facts and coincidences. In 1854 the Prince de Joinville, heir to the throne of Louis Philippe, visited Mr. Williams at Green Bay, Wis. The accounts of the interview, as given by the clergyman and the deeply interested prince, differed widely. The world was incredulous; the words of a prince outweighed those of a poor Episcopal clergyman, and the public judgment was against the latter. Mr. Williams died in Hogansburg, N. Y., Aug. 28, 1858, aged about seventy-two years. He translated the *Book of Common Prayer* into the Mohawk language. He also prepared an Iroquois spelling-book, and a life of Thomas Williams, his reputed father.

Williams, Ephraim, military officer; born in Newtown, Mass., Feb. 24, 1715; was a mariner in early life, and made several voyages to Europe. From 1740 to 1748 he served against the French, in Canada, as captain of a provincial company. He joined the New York forces under Gen. William Johnson, in 1755, and, falling in an Indian ambush, was killed near Lake George, Sept. 8, 1755. Before joining in this expedition he made his will, bequeathing his property to a township west of Fort Massachusetts, on the condition that it should be called Williamstown, the money to be used for the establishment and maintenance of a free school. The school was opened in 1791, and was incorporated a college in 1793, under the title of Williams College (*q. v.*).

Williams, Eunice, born in Deerfield, Mass., Sept. 17, 1696; was captured by the Indians in 1704 and carried to Canada. She forgot the English language; joined the Roman Catholic Church; adopted Indian customs and habits; and became the wife of an Indian named John de Rogers. She was later offered a tract of land by the Massachusetts legislature if she would remove with her family to that State, but she declined. She died in Canada in 1786.

Williams, George Henry, jurist; born in New Lebanon, Columbia co., N. Y., March 23, 1823; admitted to the bar in 1844; removed to Iowa, where he was judge of the 1st Iowa District in 1847–52; chief-justice of Oregon Territory in 1853–57; member of the Oregon constitutional convention in 1858; United States Senator in 1865–71; member of the joint high commission in 1871 for the adjustment of the differences growing out of the Alabama claims, which resulted in the treaty of Washington; Attorney-General of the United States in 1872–75; nominated chief-justice of the U. S. Supreme Court in 1873 by General Grant, but the nomination was not confirmed. He resumed the practice of law in Portland, Ore.; was mayor of that city in 1902–05; and died there, April 4, 1910.

Williams, George Washington, author; born a mulatto in Bedford Springs, Pa., Oct. 16, 1849; was a lieutenant-colonel in the Republican army of Mexico in 1865–67; engaged in journalism in 1875; graduated at the Cincinnati Law College in 1877; member of the Ohio legislature in 1878–81; and was minister to Haiti in 1885–86. He wrote *History of the Negro Race in America; Negro Troops in the War of the Rebellion; Reconstruction of the Insurgent States,* etc. He died in Blackpool, England, Aug. 4, 1891.

Williams, James, military officer; born in Hanover county, Va., in 1740; emigrated to Laurens district, S. C., in 1773, where he was an active patriot and member of the Provincial Congress in 1775. In 1779 he became colonel of militia, and commanded a detachment in the battle of Stono Ferry, June 20, 1779. At Musgrove's Mill he attacked and defeated a large body of British and Tories; and in the expedition against Ferguson, which terminated in the battle of King's Mountain, he exhibited great energy and skill, but fell in the thickest of the fight, mor-

tally wounded, and died the next day, Oct. 8, 1780.

Williams, James Douglas, legislator; born in Pickaway county, O., Jan. 16, 1808; received a common school education; and became a farmer in Indiana; served many years in the State legislature as Representative and Senator; was elected to Congress in 1874; and governor of Indiana in 1876. He was widely known by the nickname of "Blue Jeans." He died in Indianapolis, Ind., Nov. 20, 1880.

Williams, John, clergyman; born in Roxbury, Mass., Dec. 10, 1664; educated at Harvard College, and in 1686 settled as the first minister at Deerfield. The village was attacked by French and Indians, March 1, 1704, and among the inhabitants carried into captivity were Mr. Williams and a part of his family. Two of his children and a black servant were murdered at his door. With his wife and five children he began the toilsome journey towards Canada through the deep snow. On the second day his wife, weak from the effects of recent childbirth, fainted with fatigue, when the tomahawk of her captor cleaved her skull, and so he was relieved of the burden. Her husband and children were taken to Canada, and, after a captivity of nearly two years among the Caughnawaga Indians near Montreal, they were ransomed and returned home, excepting a daughter Eunice (*q. v.*), whom the Indians refused to part with. After the return of Mr. Williams to Deerfield in 1706 he resumed the charge of his congregation. He married a daughter of Captain Allen, of Connecticut, and in 1711 was appointed a commissary under Colonel Stoddard in the expedition against Canada. He died in Deerfield, June 12, 1729.

Williams, John Foster, naval officer; born in Boston, Mass., Oct. 12, 1743; early became a sailor; had command of the Massachusetts cruiser *Hazard* in 1779; and with her took the *Active;* was placed in command of the *Protector* in 1780, and on July 9 of that year engaged the *Admiral Duff*, which after an hour and a half was destroyed by an explosion. While in command of the *Hazard* a second time that vessel with others was lost in the disastrous expedition to the Penobscot River. Subsequently while cruising in the West Indies he was taken prisoner and detained till the close of the war. He died in Boston, Mass., June 24, 1814.

Williams, John Sharp, legislator; born in Memphis, Tenn., July 30, 1854; was educated at Kentucky Military Institute, the University of the South, and the University of Heidelberg, Germany; was admitted to the bar in 1877, and began practice in Yazoo City, Miss.; also became a cotton-planter; and was a Democratic member of Congress in 1903–09, and United States Senator from Mississippi for the term of 1911–17.

Williams, John Skelton, financier; born in Powhatan co., Va., July 6, 1865; was educated at the University of Virginia; engaged in the banking business with his father in Richmond; organized the Seaboard Air-line Railway system, and was its president, 1899–1904; and was engaged in the organization and management of various financial concerns till 1913, when he became Assistant Secretary of the Treasury. On Jan. 19, 1914, he was confirmed as Comptroller of the Currency, and later was associated with the Secretary of the Treasury and the Secretary of Agriculture in organizing the Federal Reserve banking system.

Williams, Jonathan, military officer; born in Boston, Mass., May 26, 1750; was engaged in mercantile and shipping business in early life. In 1801 he was made a major of artillery, and was the first superintendent of the Military Academy at West Point. In 1814 he was a delegate in Congress from Philadelphia. He died in Philadelphia, May 16, 1815.

Williams, Oscar Fitzalan, public official; born in Livonia, Livingston county, N. Y., June 29, 1843; was graduated at Cornell University in 1869; taught for several years; was consul to Havre, France, in 1889–93; and the last United States consul to Manila, Philippine Islands, appointed in 1897. In 1901 he became consul-general at Singapore, Straits Settlements. He has published several commercial text-books.

Williams, Otho Holland, military officer; born in Prince George county, Md., in March, 1749; was left an orphan at twelve years of age; appointed lieutenant of a rifle company at the beginning of the Revolution, he marched to the Continen-

tal camp at Cambridge; and in 1776 was appointed major of a new rifle regiment, which formed part of the garrison of Fort Washington, New York, when it was captured. He gallantly opposed the Hessian column, but was wounded and made prisoner. Being soon exchanged, he was made colonel of the 6th Maryland Regiment, with which he accompanied De Kalb to South Carolina; and when Gates took command of the Southern army Colonel Williams was made adjutant-general. In the battle near Camden he gained great distinction for coolness and bravery, and performed efficient service during Greene's famous retreat, as commander of a light corps that formed the rear-guard. At the battle at Guilford Court-house he was Greene's second in command; and by a brilliant charge which Williams made at Eutaw Springs he decided the victory for the Americans. In May, 1782, he was made a brigadier-general, and was appointed collector of customs for Maryland, which office he held until his death, July 16, 1794.

Williams, ROGER, founder of Rhode Island; born in Wales in 1599; went to London at an early age, where he reported sermons in short-hand, and attracted the attention of Sir Edward Coke, who befriended him in his efforts to obtain a collegiate education. He was at Pembroke College in 1623, and graduated in January, 1627. He took orders in the Church of England, but imbibed dissenting ideas, and came to Boston in 1630, where he was regarded as an extreme Puritan. He was accompanied by his wife, Mary, a young Englishwoman, who shared in the joys and sorrows of his long life. At Boston he became obnoxious to the authorities because he denied the right of magistrates to interfere with the consciences of men, and soon went to Salem, where he became assistant pastor of the church there. He was complained of by the Bostonians because he had refused to join with the congregation there until they should make a public declaration of their repentance for having communion with the churches of England while they lived in that town. He was a thorough separatist, and because his brethren in New England were not as radical as he was he assailed the theocracy.

He did not remain long at Salem, for opposition to his views compelled him to go to Plymouth, where for two years he was assistant to the pastor, Ralph Smith. There he formed the acquaintance of leading chiefs of the tribes around him, and gained a knowledge of their language. Returning to Salem, he became pastor of the church there, and promulgated his theological views so boldly that in the autumn of 1635 the General Court of Massachusetts ordered him to quit the colony in six months. His immediate offence was his calling in question the authority of magistrates in two things—namely, relating to the right of the King to grant the land of the Indians to white settlers without purchasing it; and the other, the right of the civil power to impose faith and worship. Williams made some slight concessions, and the time for his departure was extended to the following spring. Circumstances soon made the Boston magistrates suspicious that he was preparing to found a new colony with his followers; and observing with alarm that his doctrines were spreading, it was determined to seize him and send him to England at once. A small vessel was sent to Salem to take him away; but, forewarned, he left his home and family in midwinter, and for fourteen weeks wandered in the snows of the wilderness to the region of Narraganset Bay. Five companions joined him on the eastern bank of the Seekonk River; but, finding they were within the bounds of New Plymouth, they went down the stream, and at a fine spring near the head of Narraganset Bay they planted the seed of a colony, and called the place "Providence," in grateful acknowledgment of divine favor. A form of government was established—a pure democracy—allowing no interference with the rights of consciences. See RHODE ISLAND.

When Williams went to Boston he was inclined to become an Anabaptist; now he proceeded to establish a Baptist church in Providence, when several persons from Massachusetts had joined him. In March, 1639, he was baptized by immersion by a layman—Ezekiel Holliman—and then Williams baptized Holliman and ten others, and a church was organized. Williams soon doubted the validity of his own baptism and that of the others. He

withdrew from the church and never reentered it. For some years the government of the colony was a pure democracy, transacting its business by means of town-meetings, until a charter was procured in 1644 by Williams, who went to England for it. On the voyage thither he wrote *A Key into the Language of America*, together with an account of the manners and customs of the Indians. After the death of Charles I. trouble in the colony caused Williams to be sent to England again, where he remained some time, making the acquaintance of John Milton and other distinguished scholars, and wrote and published *Experiments of Spiritual Life and Health, and Their Preservation.*

In the autumn of 1654 Williams was elected president, or governor, of Rhode Island. There was then less toleration among the people than formerly, and they became incensed against fanatical persons calling themselves Friends, or Quakers. But Williams refused to persecute them. In 1672 he engaged in a public debate at Newport with George Fox and two other Quaker preachers, one of whom, named Burroughs, was specially pugnacious in support of his views. Afterwards Williams published a controversial work, entitled *George Fox Digged Out of His Burrows.*

When King Philip's War broke out Williams accepted a captain's commission, drilled a company at Providence, and erected defences there for women and children. But Providence shared the fate of other New England towns. Notwithstanding the bad treatment Roger Williams received from Massachusetts, he was always the active friend of the people there in preventing their destruction by the Indians, over whom he had great influence. He died at Providence in the spring of 1683.

Williams, SAMUEL W., of Indiana; the nominee for Vice-President of the Populist party in 1908.

Williams, SETH, military officer; born in Augusta, Me., March 21, 1822; graduated at West Point in 1842, served under Scott in Mexico as aide-de-camp to General Patterson, and after the war was in the adjutant-general's department. Early in September, 1861, he was made brigadier-general of volunteers, after serving as adjutant-general of the army of General McClellan in western Virginia. He held the same position under General Meade. In May, 1864, he was made acting inspector-general on Grant's staff, and in August of that year was brevetted major-general of volunteers for "meritorious services since Gettysburg"; also, in March, 1865, was brevetted major-general, United States army, for "gallant and meritorious services during the rebellion." He died in Boston, March 23, 1866.

Williams, STEPHEN, clergyman; born in Deerfield, Mass., May 14, 1693; was carried captive by the Indians to Canada with his family in 1704; redeemed by the French governor and sent to Boston in 1705. He wrote a narrative of his experiences in captivity; graduated at Harvard College in 1713; taught in Hadley in 1713–14; was ordained in the Congregational Church and took a charge in Longmeadow, Mass., in 1716; visited the Housatonic Indians, in Stockbridge, Mass., and established a mission among them in 1734; and was chaplain of a regiment in the expedition against Louisburg in 1745 and in the campaign of 1756. He died in Longmeadow, Mass., June 10, 1782.

Williams, THOMAS, military officer; born in New York in 1815; graduated at West Point in 1837; was assistant Professor of Mathematics there, and aide to General Scott from 1844 to 1850, behaving gallantly in the war with Mexico. He was made brigadier-general of volunteers in September, 1861; commanded for a time the forts at Hatteras, and accompanied Butler in the expedition to New Orleans. He was engaged in cutting the canal in front of Vicksburg, and was placed in command at Baton Rouge in August, 1862. General Van Dorn sent Gen. J. C. Breckinridge to seize the post. He expected to be aided by the ram *Arkansas.* He attacked the Nationals vigorously on the morning of Aug. 5. Williams had only about 2,500 men to oppose the assailants; Breckinridge had 5,000. The first blow struck fell upon Maine, Indiana, and Michigan troops, who were pushed back; when others from Connecticut, Massachusetts, and Wisconsin, with two sections of a battery, hastened to their relief. The battle lasted about two hours.

The 21st Indiana lost all its field officers. General Williams then took command of the regiment, and was leading them on, when he was killed by a bullet that passed through his breast. The Nationals fell back. The Confederates, dreadfully smitten, did likewise, and retreated. Baton Rouge was soon afterwards evacuated by the Nationals.

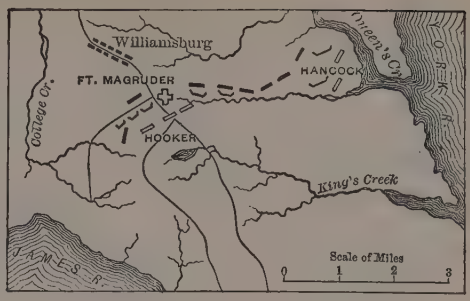
Williams, WILLIAM, signer of the Declaration of Independence; born in Lebanon, Conn., April 18, 1731; graduated at Harvard College in 1757, and was on the staff of his relative, Col. Ephraim Williams, when he was killed near Lake George in 1755. An active patriot and a member of the committee of correspondence and safety in Connecticut, he was sent to Congress in 1776. He wrote several essays to arouse the spirit of liberty in the bosoms of his countrymen, and spent nearly all his property in the cause. He had been speaker of the Connecticut Assembly in 1775, and in 1783–84 was again a member of Congress. He was also a member of the convention of Connecticut that adopted the national Constitution. Mr. Williams married a daughter of Governor Trumbull. He died in Lebanon, Conn., Aug. 2, 1811.

Williams College, an educational institution in Williamstown, Mass., founded by COL. EPHRAIM WILLIAMS (*q. v.*). The funds left by Colonel Williams for founding a free school were allowed to accumulate. A free school was incorporated in 1785, under the control of nine trustees, and a lottery was granted for raising funds to erect a schoolhouse. About $3,500 was thus obtained, when the inhabitants of the town contributed about $2,000 more. A large building, four stories high (afterwards the West College) was erected in 1790, and on Oct. 20, 1791, the free school was opened, with Rev. Ebenzer Fitch as its first principal. It was incorporated a college in 1793, under the title of Williams's Hall. The property vested in the free school was transferred to the college, and the State appropriated $4,000 for the purchase of apparatus and a library. Mr. Fitch was its first president, and the first "commencement" was in 1795, when four students graduated. Its catalogue of students printed in 1795 is said to be the earliest production of the kind in this country. It contained the names of seventy-seven students. Several college buildings have been added since. Near the college building is "Mills Park," on the site of and commemorating the prayer-meeting of students in 1808, out of which grew the first organization in America for foreign missionary work. The leader among the students was Samuel J. Mills, and his is the first name appended to the constitution of the society. The college has grounds and buildings valued at over $1,352,000; endowment funds, $1,387,300; volumes in the library, 67,800; scientific apparatus, etc., $100,000; average number of faculty, 58; average student attendance, 560; graduates, 4,670.

Williamsburg, a city and county seat of James City county, Va., 3 miles from the James River and 50 miles southeast of Richmond. The city was first settled in 1632; was the seat of the royal government prior to the Revolutionary War; and afterwards was the State capital till 1780, when the government was transferred to Richmond. The capitol was completed in 1704, burned, rebuilt in 1752, and again burned about 1831. Williamsburg is the seat of WILLIAM AND MARY COLLEGE (*q. v.*), of the Eastern Lunatic Asylum of Virginia, opened in 1773, and the oldest institution of its kind in the United States; and of an Episcopal church dating from 1678. The city was the scene of a noted battle in the Civil War. See WILLIAMSBURG, BATTLE OF.

Williamsburg, BATTLE OF. The Confederates evacuated Yorktown, where a comparatively small force had held McClellan in check for about a month. The sick, hospital stores, ammunition, and camp equipage had been sent to Richmond, and in the night of May 3, 1862, the Confederate troops evacuated Yorktown and Gloucester and fled towards Williamsburg, vigorously pursued by horse-artillery and cavalry under General Stoneman, followed by several divisions under the chief command of General Sumner. Gen. Joseph E. Johnston, who had hastened to the peninsula after the evacuation of Manassas, was now in chief command in front of McClellan. Leaving a strong guard at Williamsburg to check the pursuers, Johnston fell back with his main army towards Rich-

mond, with the intention of fighting the Nationals in full force when they should approach that city. But he was compelled to fight sooner than he expected, for gallant and energetic men—Generals Hooker, Kearny, and Hancock — attacked that rear-guard near Williamsburg on May 5. The Confederates had some months before constructed a line of strong works, thirteen in number, across the rolling plateau on which Williamsburg stands, and two miles in front of that city. These caused pursuing Stoneman to halt and fall back.



MAP OF THE BATTLE OF WILLIAMSBURG.

Hooker pressed forward along the Hampton road; and on the morning of May 5, being in front of the Confederate works, and knowing that 30,000 troops were within supporting distance and the bulk of the Potomac army within four hours' march of him, he began an attack with New England, New York, and New Jersey troops. Hearing of this, Johnston sent back Longstreet's Confederate division to support the rear-guard. Other troops soon joined Hooker. At 1 P.M. the battle assumed gigantic proportions. Hooker was losing heavily. Other Confederate reinforcements had arrived. Three times the Confederates had made a fierce charge and been repulsed, and in one of these quick movements five of the National cannon were captured, with 300 prisoners. For nearly nine consecutive hours Hooker fought almost unaided. He had called repeatedly on Sumner for help, but in vain; but between four and five o'clock the brave and dashing General Kearny came up with his division, with orders from General Heintzelman to relieve Hooker's worn and fearfully thinned regiments. They had then lost in the battle 1,700 of their companions.

The battle was now renewed with spirit. General Hancock, too, was successfully engaged in a flank movement. He drove the Confederates from some redoubts, but his force was too small to make their occupation by his men a prudent act. He finally made a fierce bayonet charge, when the Confederates broke and fled with precipitation, with a loss of over 500 men. Very soon the battle at Williamsburg was ended, and the victorious troops were eager to pursue their retreating foes, led by Longstreet. McClellan came upon the battle-ground after the conflict and refused to allow a pursuit. He moved leisurely forward during the next ten or twelve days, and reached the Chickahominy River when Johnston's troops were safely encamped beyond it. The entire National loss in the battle was 2,228, of whom 456 were killed and 1,400 wounded. The Confederates lost about 1,000. They left nearly 800 behind in their hasty flight.

Williamson, HUGH, statesman; born in West Nottingham, Pa., Dec. 5, 1735; graduated at the University of Pennsylvania in 1757; studied divinity; preached a while; and was Professor of Mathematics in his *alma mater* (1760–63). He was one of the committee of the American Philosophical Society appointed to observe the transit of Venus in 1769, of which he published an account; also an account of the transit of Mercury the same year. Being in England to solicit aid for an academy at Newark, N. J., he was examined (1774) before the privy council concerning the destruction of the tea at Boston. He returned home in 1776, and engaged, with his brother, in mercantile pursuits in Charleston, S. C. Afterwards he practised medicine at Edenton, N. C.; served in the North Carolina House of Commons; also as a surgeon in the North Carolina militia (1781–82). He was a delegate in Congress (1782–85 and 1787–88), and in the convention that framed the national Constitution. He was again in Congress in 1790–93, and soon afterwards removed to New York, where he assisted in forming a literary and philosophical society in 1814. In 1786 he published

a series of essays on paper currency. In 1812 he published a *History of North Carolina.* He died in New York, May 22, 1819.

Williamson, JOSEPH, lawyer; born in Belfast, Me., Oct. 5, 1828; graduated at Bowdoin College in 1849; was judge of the municipal court of Belfast, Me., in 1853–61; and later became solicitor of that city. He was a member of national and State historical societies. His publications include *The Maine Register and State Reference Book; History of Belfast, Me.;* and *Bibliography of Maine.* He died in 1902.

Williamson, PETER, author; born in Scotland. He was kidnapped at Aberdeen when a child, brought to America, and lived a considerable time among the Cherokee Indians. He then returned to Scotland, where he received damages from his captors and gave the public descriptions of American Indians. He was the author of *French and Indian Cruelty Exemplified,* and *A Brief Account of the War in North America.* He died in Edinburgh, Scotland, Jan. 19, 1799.

Williamson, ROBERT STOCKTON, military officer; born in New York in 1824; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1848; served in the Civil War; was chief topographical engineer at the capture of Newbern and Fort Macon, N. C.; brevetted lieutenant-colonel for gallantry in the latter engagement; was transferred to the Army of the Potomac; later was ordered to the Pacific coast, where he was chief topographical engineer of the department in 1863–65; was promoted lieutenant-colonel, corps of engineers, in 1869; and retired in 1882. He died Nov. 10, 1882.

Williamson, WILLIAM DURKEE, historian; born in Canterbury, Conn., July 31, 1779; settled in Amherst, Mass.; graduated at Brown College in 1804; studied law and began practice in Bangor, Me.; and held a seat in the Massachusetts Senate in 1816–20. In the latter year, when Maine separated from Massachusetts, he was made president of the first Maine Senate, and when Gov. William King resigned became acting governor. He was a member of Congress in 1821–23; probate judge of Hancock county in 1824–40; and the author of *History of the State of Maine, from Its First Discovery to the Separation* (2 volumes). He died in Bangor, Me., May 27, 1846.

Willich, AUGUST, military officer; born in Gorzyn, Prussia, in 1810; was trained for the army and appointed second lieutenant of artillery in 1828; resigned in 1846 owing to his republican views, which led him to take part in the revolution; and after its failure he became an exile. In 1853 he settled in Brooklyn, N. Y., and a few years later removed to Cincinnati, O. When the Civil War broke out he was appointed adjutant in the 9th Ohio Volunteers and shortly after was promoted major. In the fall of 1861 he was made colonel of the 32d Indiana Infantry; in July, 1862, promoted brigadier-general of volunteers; and early in the battle of Stone River, Dec. 31, 1862, was captured and remained a prisoner for some months. He distinguished himself at the battle of Chickamauga and in other actions, and was brevetted major-general of volunteers, Oct. 21, 1865. He died in St. Mary's, O., Jan. 23, 1878.

Willing, THOMAS, lawyer; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Dec. 19, 1731; studied law in England, and returning to the United States became manager in 1754 of the Willing & Morris mercantile house, of Philadelphia. Through this firm the government secured naval and military supplies during the Revolutionary War. He was elected mayor of Philadelphia in October, 1763; was an associate justice of the Pennsylvania Supreme Court in 1767–74; presided at a mass-meeting, June 18, 1774, called for the purpose of organizing a general congress of the colonies; and was made a member of the committee of correspondence. In 1780, when there was a great lack of provisions for the Continental army, he with others contributed £260,000 towards the establishment of the Bank of Pennsylvania to provide supplies for the army. In 1781, when the Bank of North America was founded, he became its president, and held the office till Jan. 9, 1792; was also the first president of the United States Bank established in 1791. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., Jan. 19, 1821.

Willis, HENRY PARKER, educator; born in Weymouth, Mass., Aug. 14, 1874; graduated at the University of Chicago in 1894; studied abroad; and was called to the chair of Economics and Political

Science in Washington and Lee University, and of Finance in George Washington University. He is the author of *History of the Latin Monetary Union; Report of the Monetary Commission; Reciprocity; Our Philippine Problem; Modern Banking*, etc.

Willis, NATHANIEL PARKER, poet; born in Portland, Me., Jan. 20, 1806; graduated at Yale College in 1827. He edited *The Legendary*, a series of volumes of tales; and in 1828 established the *American Monthly Magazine*, which he conducted two years, when it was merged into the *New York Mirror*, edited by George P. Morris. He travelled four years in Europe, and portions of his life there were exquisitely limned in his *Pencillings by the Way*, published in the *Mirror*. He was attached to the American legation in Paris. He married in England; returned to the United States; settled on the Susquehanna; and during his four years' residence there wrote his *Letters from Under a Bridge*. In 1839 he and Dr. Porter established *The Corsair*, in New York. He went again to England; wrote much while there; and prepared for Mr. Virtue the letter-press for two serial works, illustrated by Bartlett, on the scenery of Ireland and America. Returning in 1844, he and General Morris established the *Evening Mirror*. His health soon gave way, and he again went abroad. He returned in 1846, after which until his death, in "Idlewild," Cornwall, N. Y., Jan. 20, 1867, he was co-editor with Morris of the *Home Journal*. His prose writings are more numerous by far than his poetry, yet he ranks among the distinguished American poets. Willis's sacred poetry is considered his best.

Wills, LEGAL. In the United States all persons are competent to make a will except idiots, persons of unsound mind, and infants. In many States a will of an unmarried woman is deemed revoked by her subsequent marriage. A nuncupative or unwritten will is one made by a soldier in active service, by a mariner while at sea, or by a person *in extremis*. It is a verbal desire, which, reduced to writing by any person who heard it, and attested by others, is generally regarded as a legal will. A holographic will is one written wholly by the testator.

In most of the States a will must be in writing, signed by the testator, or by some person in his presence, and by his direction, and attested by witnesses, who must subscribe their names thereto in the presence of the testator. The form of wording a will is immaterial as long as its intent is clear. The age at which persons may make wills is in most of the States twenty-one years. Males and females are competent to make wills at eighteen years in the following States: California, Connecticut, Hawaiian Islands, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, North Dakota, Oklahoma Territory, South Dakota, Utah; and in the following States only females at eighteen years: Colorado, District of Columbia, Illinois, Maryland, Missouri, Wisconsin. In the following States persons of eighteen years may dispose of personal property only: Alabama, Arkansas, Missouri, Oregon, Rhode Island, Virginia, West Virginia; in Georgia any one over fourteen years, and in Louisiana any one over sixteen years, is competent to make a will. In Colorado persons of seventeen years, and in New York males of eighteen and females of sixteen years, may dispose of personality. Most of the States require two witnesses, except in Connecticut (three), District of Columbia (three or four), Maine (three), Maryland and Massachusetts, (three), Mississippi and New Hampshire (three), Rhode Island and South Carolina (three), Vermont (three).

Wilmington, city, port of entry, and county seat of Newcastle county, Del.; at the junction of Brandywine and Christiana creeks, 28 miles southwest of Philadelphia. It was founded in 1732; incorporated as a borough in 1740; and chartered as a city in 1832. On a promontory on Christiana Creek, near the original borough, the first Swedish colony in America was landed in April, 1638, and the old Swede's Church is a noteworthy attraction of the present day. Wilmington also has the credit of being the first place in the United States where iron shipbuilding was carried on.

Wilmington, city, port of entry, and county seat of New Hanover county, N. C.; on Cape Fear River, about 20 miles from the Atlantic Ocean. It was originally laid out under the name of Newton in 1733; was incorporated as a borough in

1760, and chartered as a city in 1866; and was one of the most noted ports for blockade-runners in the first four years of the Civil War. In December, 1864, a combined naval and military expedition was sent against Fort Fisher, an earthwork of great strength and the principal protection of New Inlet, the chief entrance to Cape Fear River. For results of this expedition see FISHER, FORT. Pop. (1910), 25,748.

Wilmot, DAVID, jurist; born in Bethany, Pa., Jan. 20, 1814; began the practice of law in 1834; was member of Congress from 1845 to 1851; presiding judge of the 13th (Pennsylvania) district from 1853 to 1861; and was in the United States Senate, to fill a vacancy, from 1861 to 1863. He was temporary chairman of the committee of the convention at Chicago that nominated Mr. Lincoln for the Presidency. For the celebrated "Proviso" bearing his name, see below. President Lincoln appointed him a judge in the United States Court of Claims in 1863, which position he occupied until his death. He died in Towanda, Pa., March 16, 1868.

Wilmot Proviso, THE. On Aug. 12, 1846, a bill being under consideration in the Committee of the Whole on the State of the Union, of the national House of Representatives, entitled "An act making further provision for the expenses attending the intercourse between the United States and foreign nations," David Wilmot, a Representative from the State of Pennsylvania, moved the following amendment:

"Provided, that as an express and fundamental condition to the acquisition of any territory from the republic of Mexico by the United States, by virtue of any treaty which may be negotiated between them, and to the use by the executive of the moneys herein appropriated, neither slavery nor involuntary servitude shall ever exist in any part of said territory, except for crime, whereof the party shall first be duly convicted."

This amendment was adopted in the Committee of the Whole by a vote of yeas 77, nays 58. There was no vote had on it in the House by yeas and nays, the bill having passed the body as it came from the Committee of the Whole, by a vote of yeas 87, nays 64. The bill was not voted on in the Senate, on account of a discussion as to Mr. Wilmot's amendment having engaged the time of the body until the hour arrived for an adjournment *sine die.*

On Feb. 8, 1847, the three-million bill, being under consideration in the Committee of the Whole on the State of the Union, Mr. Wilmot moved the following amendment:

SEC. —. "And be it further enacted, that there shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in any territory on the continent of America, which shall hereafter be acquired by or annexed to the United States, except for crimes, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted: Provided always, That any person escaping into such territory from whom labor or service is lawfully claimed in any one of the United States, such fugitive may be lawfully reclaimed and conveyed out of said territory to the persons claiming his or her labor or service." The amendment was adopted in the Committee of the Whole.

On Feb. 15, 1847, the question coming up in the House, upon agreeing to the amendment of the Committee of the Whole, it was decided in the affirmative by yeas 106, and nays 102. The Senate having passed a similar bill, which came before the House on March 3, 1847, Mr. Wilmot moved to amend the same by adding his proviso thereto. The motion was rejected by yeas 97, and nays 102. The Senate bill without the amendment of Mr. Wilmot became a law.

This celebrated proviso has been moved by different Senators and Representatives to various bills since. The votes on it are seen under the caption of the various measures which have been moved to amend it. The proviso was the basis of the FREE-SOIL PARTY (*q. v.*) in 1848, and of the Republican party in 1856.

The proviso served to make plain the irreconcilable difference between the ideals and interests of the North and those of the South. It solidified the South in defence of its own, and almost solidified the North in opposition. The sectionalizing process now passed into its final stage, and in the public and private utterances of thoughtful men began to recur, with

ever-increasing frequency, the forecast of disunion. The expansionist proclivities of the American people were by no means overcome—indeed, it is doubtful if they were seriously checked—by the fiery denunciation of the war. This was more a matter of political tactics than of obedience to the popular will—the natural criticism for which the policy of the administration furnished occasion to its enemies; but the question as to whether the Northern industrial and social system or the Southern should prevail in the acquired territory went more directly home to all. As soon as the issue raised by the Wilmot Proviso was fairly before the people, the legislatures of the free States, and even of Delaware, began to pass resolutions in favor of the measure, and before the wave had passed ten of them had so expressed themselves. It was evidently a popular movement, which the leaders would not long be able to resist. Polk's private jeremiads over the disorganization of the Democracy, the treachery of those who claimed to be supporters of his administration, and the wickedness of injecting the slavery question into governmental politics were vain. Old issues were rapidly losing effectiveness as the basis of party division and were becoming absorbed in the new; and of these, in turn, slavery soon overshadowed all the rest. The progress of sectionalization was seriously threatening the bonds of the Union.

Wilson, Alexander, ornithologist; born in Paisley, Scotland, July 6, 1766; became a weaver, and wrote verses for the newspapers, and in 1789 peddled two volumes of his poetry through the country. His *Watty and Meg*, published in 1792, and attributed to Burns, had a sale of 100,000 copies. Being prosecuted for a poetical lampoon, he came to America in 1794, landing at Newcastle, Del. By the advice of William Bartram (*q. v.*), the botanist, he turned his attention to ornithology. Late in 1804 he made a journey on foot to Niagara Falls, and wrote a poetic account of it. In 1805 he learned the art of etching. He persuaded Bradford, the Philadelphia publisher, to furnish funds for the publication of a work on American ornithology in a superb manner, but it was so expensive that it was not pecuniarily successful. His labors, day and night, upon this great work impaired his health and hastened his death. He had finished seven volumes when he laid aside his implements of labor. He died in Philadelphia, Aug. 23, 1813. The eighth and ninth volumes were edited after his death, with a biography, by George Ord, who had accompanied him on some of his journeys. The work was afterwards continued by Charles Lucien Bonaparte.

Wilson, Allen Benjamin, inventor; born in Willett, N. Y., Oct. 18, 1827; learned the cabinet-making trade. In 1849, while working at his trade in Pittsburg, Mass., he perfected the sewing-machine, afterwards known as the Wheeler & Wilson. He introduced the rotary hook, stationary bobbin, and the four-motion feeding-plate. In 1850 he met Nathaniel Wheeler, and with him and two others started the Wheeler & Wilson Manufacturing Company in Bridgeport, Conn. He died in Woodmont, Conn., April 29, 1888.

Wilson, David, author; born in West Hebron, N. Y., Sept. 17, 1818; graduated at Union College in 1840; admitted to the bar and began practice in Whitehall, N. Y. Later he abandoned that profession and turned his attention to literature; settled in Albany, N. Y., in 1857. His publications include *Solomon Northrup, or Twelve Years a Slave; Life of Jane McCrea, including an account of General Burgoyne's Campaign; A Narrative of Nelson Lee, a Captive Among the Comanches; Life in Whitehall, a Tale of Shipfever; Life of Henrietta Robinson, the Veiled Murderess*, etc. He died in Albany, N. Y., June 9, 1887.

Wilson, Henry, Vice-President of the United States; born in Farmington, N. H., Feb. 16, 1812; was a poor boy, brought up on a farm, and had little book education; became a shoemaker at Natick, and earned money enough to have instruction at an academy for a while, but resumed shoemaking at that place in 1838. He became interested in politics, and in 1840 made more than sixty speeches in favor of William H. Harrison for President of the United States. He was elected to the Massachusetts legislature several times, and was twice a State senator. He was an uncompromising opponent of

slavery, and took an important part in organizing the FREE-SOIL PARTY (*q. v.*). He bought the *Boston Republican*, a daily newspaper, which he edited for two years. He labored diligently for the Free-soil party, and was its candidate for governor of Massachusetts in 1853, but was defeated. In 1855 he was elected to the

HENRY WILSON.

United States Senate, where he remained a conspicuous member until he was inaugurated Vice-President of the United States with Grant in 1873. While in Boston during that year he sustained a shock of apoplexy, causing partial paralysis. He had nearly recovered, when, on Nov. 10, 1875, a second shock prostrated him. For twelve days he was ill in the Vice-President's room, when a third shock terminated his life, Nov. 22. His publications include *History of the Anti-slavery Measures of the Thirty-seventh and Thirty-eighth Congresses* (1864); *History of the Reconstruction Measures of the Thirty-ninth and Fortieth Congresses* (1868); and a *History of the Rise and Fall of the Slave Power in America* (3 volumes).

Speech at Richmond, Ind., Aug. 3, 1872. —Mr. Wilson took an active part in the campaign against Horace Greeley. The following is an abstract of one of the most notable of his speeches:

Gentlemen,—Standing here to-day, in this presence, among these liberty-loving, patriotic men and women of Wayne county, I want to call your attention for a few moments to what we have struggled for in the past.

Nearly forty years ago, when the slave power dominated the country—when the dark shadow of human slavery fell upon us all here in the North—there arose a body of conscientious men and women who proclaimed the doctrine that emancipation was the duty of the master and the right of the slave; they proclaimed it to be a duty to let the oppressed go free. Rewards were offered—they were denounced, mobbed—violence pervaded the land. Yet these faithful ones maintained with fidelity, against all odds, the sublime creed of human liberty. The struggle, commencing forty years ago against the assumption and dominations of the slave power, went on from one step to another —the slave power went right on to the conquest of the country—promises were broken, without regard to constitutions or laws of the human race. The work went on till the people in their majesty, in 1860, went to the ballot-box and made Abraham Lincoln President of the United States. Then came a great trial; that trial was whether we should do battle for the principles of eternal right and maintain the cause of liberty, or surrender; whether we would be true to our principles or false. We stood firm—stood by the sacred cause—and then the slave power plunged the country into a godless rebellion.

Then came another trial, testing the manhood, the courage, the sublime fidelity of the lovers of liberty in the country. We met that test as we had met every other test—trusting in God, trusting in the people—willing to stand or fall by our principles. Through four years of blood we maintained those principles; we broke down the rebellion, restored a broken Union, and vindicated the authority and power of the nation. In that struggle Indiana played a glorious part in the field, and her voice in the councils of the nation had great and deserved influence.

Now, gentlemen, measured by the high standard of fidelity to country, of patriotism, the great political party to which we belong to-day was as true to the country in war as it had been in peace—true to

the country every time, and on all occasions.

Not only true to the country, but the Republican party was true to liberty. It struck the fetters from the bondman, and elevated 4,500,000 men from chattelhood to manhood; gave them civil rights, gave them political rights, and gave them part and parcel of the power of the country.

Now, gentlemen, here to-day I point to this record—this great record—and say to you that, measured by the standard of patriotism—one of the greatest and grandest standards by which to measure public men, political organizations, or nations—measured by that standard which the whole world recognizes, the Republican party of the United States stands before the world with none to accuse it of want of fidelity to country. Measured by the standard of liberty—equal, universal, impartial liberty—liberty to all races, all colors, and all nationalities—the Republican party stands to-day before the country pre-eminently the party of universal liberty. Measured by the standard of humanity—that humanity that stoops down and lifts up the poor and lowly, the oppressed and the castaways, the poor, struggling sons and daughters of toil and misfortune—measured by that standard, the Republican party stands before this country to-day without a peer in our history, or in the history of any other people. We have gone further, embraced more, lifted up lowlier men, carried them to a higher elevation—labored amid obloquy and reproach to lift up the despised and lowly nations of the earth—than any political organization that the sun ever shone upon.

And then, gentlemen, tested by the support of all the great ideas that tend to lift up humanity, to pull none down, to lift all up, to carry the country upward and forward, ever towards God, the Republican party of the country has been, and now is, to-day, in advance of any political organization the world knows.

Gentlemen, I am not here to maintain that this great party, with its 3,500,000 voters, tested and tried as it has been during twelve years—I am not here to say that it has made no mistakes. We have committed errors; we could not always see what the right was; we failed sometimes: but, gentlemen, take our record—take it as it stands—it is a bright and glorious record, that any man or set of men may be proud of. We have stood, and we stand to-day, on the side of man, and on the side of the ideas God has given us in His Holy Word. There has not been a day since by the labors, the prayers, and the sacrifices of the old anti-slavery men and women of the country, from 1830 to 1855—during twenty-five years—I say to you, gentlemen, here, to-day, that this party, the product of these prayers, and these sacrifices, and these efforts—with all its faults—has been true to patriotism, true to liberty, true to justice, true to humanity, true to Christian civilization.

I say to you here to-day, that all along during this time, the Democratic party carried the banners of slavery. Whenever the slave power desired anything they got it. They wielded the entire power of the nation, until, in their arrogance, when we elected Abraham Lincoln, they plunged the country into the fire and blood of the greatest Civil War recorded in history. After the war all the measures inaugurated for emancipation—to make the country free—to lift an emancipated race up—to give them instruction and make them citizens—to give them civil rights and make them voters—to put them on an equality with the rest of the people—to every one of that series of thirty or forty measures the Democratic party gave their President unqualified and united opposition. Well, now, we have been accustomed to say that they were mistaken, misinformed, that they were honest—that they believed what they did; but, gentlemen, if they have believed what they have said, that they have acted according to their convictions from 1832 to 1872—a period of forty years—can they be honest, to-day, in indorsing the Cincinnati platform—in supporting Horace Greeley?

Why, we have read of sudden and miraculous conversions. We read of St. Paul's conversion, of the light that shone around him, but I ask you, in the history of the human family, have you ever known 3,000,000 men — 3,000,000 great sinners for forty years — 3,000,000 men, all convicted, all converted, and all changed in the twinkling of an eye? Why, gentlemen, if it is so, for one I will lift

up my eyes and my heart to God, that those sinners, that this great political party that has been for forty years, every time and all the time, on every question and on all questions pertaining to the human race and the rights of the colored race, on the wrong side—on the side of injustice, oppression, and inhumanity—on the side that has been against man, and against God's Holy Word—I say, gentlemen, that I will lift up my heart in gratitude to God that these men have suddenly repented.

The Republican party—that always won—always ought to win, because it is on the right side; and when it is defeated, it only falls back to gather strength to advance again. I did suppose that the greatest task it would ever have, greater than putting down the Rebellion, greater than emancipating 4,000,000 men, greater than lifting them up to civil rights—greater than all its grand deeds—would be the conviction and conversion of the Democratic party of the United States. Just as we are going into a Presidential election—when it was certain that if the Republican party said and affirmed, said by its members, said altogether, that its ideas, its principles, its policy, its measures, were stronger than were the political organization of the Democrats—I say, just as we are going into the contest, when it was certain that we would break down and crush out its ideas, and take its flags and disband it, and out of the wreck we would gather hundreds of thousands of changed and converted men, the best part of the body—just at that time some of our men are so anxious to embrace somebody that has always been wrong that they start out at once in a wild hunt to clasp hands with our enemies and to save the Democratic party from absolute annihilation. To do what they want us is to disband. Well, gentlemen, I suppose there are some here to-day that belonged to the grand old Army of the Potomac. If when Lee had retreated on Richmond, and Phil Sheridan sent back to Grant that if he pushed things he would capture the army—if, instead of sending back to Sheridan, as Grant did, "Push things," he had said to him, "Let us disband the Army of the Potomac; don't hurt the feelings of these retreating men; let us clasp hands with them," what would have been the result? I suppose there are some of you here to-day that followed Sherman—that were with him in his terrible march from Chattanooga to Atlanta—with him in that great march from Atlanta to the sea—what would you have thought of him if, when you came in sight of the Atlantic Ocean, you had orders to disband before the banners of the Rebellion had disappeared from the southern heavens?

I tell you, to-day, this movement of a portion of our forces is this and nothing more. I would as soon have disbanded that Army of the Potomac after Sheridan's ride through the Valley of the Shenandoah, or when Sherman had reached the sea, as to disband the Republican party to-day. The time has not come.

I am not making a mere partisan appeal to you. I believe in this Republican party, and, if I know myself, rather than see it defeated to-day—rather than see the government pass out of its hands—I would sacrifice anything on earth in my possession, even life itself. I have seen brave and good men—patriotic, liberty-loving, God-fearing men—I have seen them die for the cause of the country, for the ideas we profess, and I tell you to-day, with all the faults of the Republican party—and it has had faults and has made some mistakes—I say to you that I believe upon my conscience its defeat would be a disaster to the country, and would be a stain upon our record. It would bring upon us—we might say what we pleased, our enemies would claim it, and the world would record it—that this great, patriotic, liberty-loving Republican party of the United States, after all its great labors and great history, had been weighed in the balances and found wanting, and condemned by the American people.

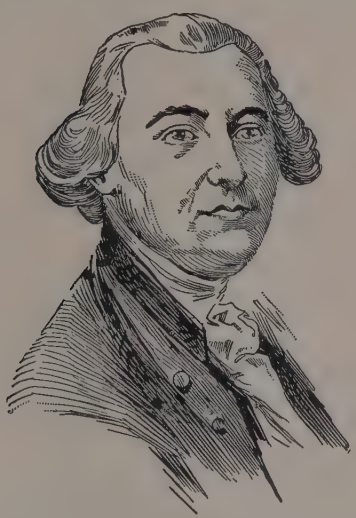
I became an anti-slavery man in 1835. In 1836 I tied myself, pledged myself, to do all I could to overthrow the slave power of my country. During all these years I have never given a vote, uttered a word, or written a line that I did not suppose tended to this result. I invoke you old anti-slavery men here to-day—and I know I am speaking to men who have been engaged in the cause—I implore you men who have been true in the past,

no matter what the men or their natures are, to stand with the grand organization of the Republican party—be true to its cause and fight its battles. If we are defeated, let us accept the defeat as best we may; if we are victorious, let us make our future more glorious than the past. If we fail, let us have the proud consciousness that we have been faithful to our principles, true to our convictions; that we go down with our flag flying—that we go down trusting in God that our country may become, what we have striven to make it, the foremost nation on the globe.

Wilson, IDA LEWIS, the American Grace Darling; born in Newport, R. I., in 1841; daughter of Capt. Hosea Lewis, of the Lime Rock Light-house, Newport Harbor. She took up her residence with her parents in the light-house in 1854. As the only means of communication with the city of Newport was by water, she soon became an expert rower and swimmer. Since her fifteenth year she had rescued eighteen persons in the adjacent sea, several times at the peril of her own life. In 1879 she was appointed keeper of the light-house by Secretary Sherman, who wrote: "This appointment is conferred upon you as a mark of my appreciation for your noble and heroic efforts in saving human lives." During the same year General Grant presented her with a subscription boat named the *Rescue;* and in July, 1881, the Secretary of the Treasury awarded her the gold life-saving medal. She also received medals from several humane societies. The *Rescue* was on exhibition at the World's Fair, 1893. She died in Newport, R. I., Oct. 24, 1911.

WILSON, JAMES

Wilson, JAMES, signer of the Declaration of Independence; born near St. Andrew's, Scotland, Sept. 14, 1742; educated in Scotland; came to America, and



JAMES WILSON.

in 1766 was tutor in the higher seminaries of learning in Philadelphia, and studied law under John Dickinson. He was in the Provincial Convention of Pennsylvania in 1774, and was a delegate in Congress the next year, where he was an advocate for independence. From 1779 to 1783 he was advocate-general for France in the United States. Mr. Wilson was a member of the convention that framed the national Constitution, and of the Pennsylvania convention that adopted it; and was one of the first judges of the Supreme Court of the United States. He became the first Professor of Law in the University of Pennsylvania in 1790; and, with Thomas McKean, LL.D., published *Commentaries on the Constitution of the United States.* He died in Edenton, N. C., Aug. 28, 1798.

A Vindication of the American Colonies. —In the convention for the province of Pennsylvania, Mr. Wilson delivered a great speech in January, 1775, foreshadowing the union of the colonies and their armed resistance to Great Britain.

"A most daring spirit of resistance and disobedience still prevails in Massachusetts, and has broken forth in fresh violences of a criminal nature. The most proper and effectual methods have been taken to prevent these mischiefs; and the Parliament may depend upon a firm resolution to withstand every attempt to weaken or impair the supreme authority

of Parliament over all the dominions of the crown."—*Speech of the King of Great Britain to Parliament, November, 1774.*

Mr. Chairman,—Whence, sir, proceeds all the invidious and ill-grounded clamor against the colonists of America? Why are they stigmatized in Britain as licentious and ungovernable? Why is their virtuous opposition to the illegal attempts of their governors represented under the falsest colors and placed in the most ungracious point of view? This opposition, when exhibited in its true light, and when viewed, with unjaundiced eyes, from a proper situation and at a proper distance, stands confessed the lovely offspring of freedom. It breathes the spirit of its parent. Of this ethereal spirit the whole conduct, and particularly the late conduct, of the colonists has shown them eminently possessed. It has animated and regulated every part of their proceedings. It has been recognized to be genuine by all those symptoms and effects by which it has been distinguished in other ages and other countries. It has been calm and regular; it has not acted without occasion; it has not acted disproportionably to the occasion. As the attempts, open or secret, to undermine or to destroy it have been repeated or enforced in a just degree, its vigilance and its vigor have been exerted to defeat or to disappoint them. As its exertions have been sufficient for those purposes hitherto, let us hence draw a joyful prognostic that they will continue sufficient for those purposes hereafter. It is not yet exhausted; it will still operate irresistibly whenever a necessary occasion shall call forth its strength.

Permit me, sir, by appealing in a few instances to the spirit and conduct of the colonists, to evince that what I have said of them is just. Did they disclose any uneasiness at the proceedings and claims of the British Parliament before those claims and proceedings afforded a reasonable cause for it? Did they even disclose any uneasiness when a reasonable cause for it was first given? Our rights were invaded by their regulations of our internal policy. We submitted to them; we were unwilling to oppose them. The spirit of liberty was slow to act. When those invasions were renewed; when the efficacy and malignancy of them were attempted to be redoubled by the Stamp Act; when chains were formed for us and preparations were made for riveting them on our limbs, what measures did we pursue? The spirit of liberty found it necessary now to act; but she acted with the calmness and decent dignity suited to her character. Were we rash or seditious? Did we discover want of loyalty to our sovereign? Did we betray want of affection to our brethren in Britain? Let our dutiful and reverential petitions to the throne; let our respectful, though firm, remonstrances to the Parliament; let our warm and affectionate addresses to our brethren and (we will still call them) our friends in Great Britain—let all those, transmitted from every part of the continent, testify the truth. By their testimony let our conduct be tried.

As our proceedings during the existence and operation of the Stamp Act prove fully and incontestably the painful sensations that tortured our breasts from the prospect of disunion with Britain, the peals of joy which burst forth universally upon the repeal of that odious statute loudly proclaim the heartfelt delight produced in us by a reconciliation with her. Unsuspicious, because undesigning, we buried our complaints and the causes of them in oblivion, and returned with eagerness to our former unreserved confidence. Our connection with our parent country, and the reciprocal blessings resulting from it to her and to us, were the favorite and pleasing topics of our public discourses and our private conversations. Lulled into delightful security, we dreamed of nothing but increasing fondness and friendship, cemented and strengthened by a kind and perpetual communication of good offices. Soon, however, too soon, were we awakened from the soothing dreams! Our enemies renewed their designs against us, not with less malice, but with more art. Under the plausible pretence of regulating our trade, and, at the same time, of making provision for the administration of justice and the support of government in some of the colonies, they pursued their scheme of depriving us of our property without our consent. As the attempts to distress us and to degrade us to a rank inferior to that of freemen ap-

peared now to be reduced into a regular system, it became proper on our part to form a regular system for counteracting them. We ceased to import goods from Great Britain. Was this measure dictated by selfishness or by licentiousness? Did it not injure ourselves while it injured the British merchants and manufacturers? Was it inconsistent with the peaceful demeanor of subjects to abstain from making purchases when our freedom and our safety rendered it necessary for us to abstain from them? A regard for our freedom and our safety was our only motive; for no sooner had the Parliament, by repealing part of the revenue laws, inspired us with the flattering hopes that they had departed from their intentions of oppressing and of taxing us, than we forsook our plan for defeating those intentions and began to import as formerly. Far from being peevish or captious, we took no public notice even of their declaratory law of dominion over us; our candor led us to consider it as a decent expedient of retreating from the actual exercise of that dominion.

But, alas! the root of bitterness still remained. The duty on tea was reserved to furnish occasion to the ministry for a new effort to enslave and to ruin us; and the East India Company were chosen and consented to be the detested instruments of ministerial despotism and cruelty. A cargo of their tea arrived at Boston. By a low artifice of the governor, and by the wicked activity of the tools of government, it was rendered impossible to store it up or to send it back, as was done at other places. A number of persons, unknown, destroyed it.

Let us here make a concession to our enemies. Let us suppose that the transaction deserves all the dark and hideous colors in which they have painted it; let us even suppose—for our cause admits of an excess of candor—that all their exaggerated accounts of it were confined strictly to the truth; what will follow? Will it follow that every British colony in America, or even the colony of Massachusetts Bay, or even the town of Boston in that colony, merits the imputation of being factious and seditious? Let the frequent mobs and riots that have happened in Great Britain upon much more trivial occasions shame our calumniators into silence. Will it follow, because the rules of order and regular government were in that instance violated by the offenders, that for this reason the principles of the constitution and the maxims of justice must be violated by their punishment? Will it follow, because those who were guilty could not be known, that therefore those who were known not to be guilty must suffer? Will it follow that even the guilty should be condemned without being heard—that they should be condemned upon partial testimony, upon the representations of their avowed and embittered enemies? Why were they not tried in courts of justice known to their constitution, and by juries of their neighborhood? Their courts and their juries were not, in the case of Captain Preston, transported beyond the bounds of justice by their resentment; why, then, should it be presumed that in the case of those offenders they would be prevented from doing justice by their affection? But the colonists, it seems, must be stripped of their judicial as well as of their legislative powers. They must be bound by a legislature; they must be tried by a jurisdiction not their own. Their constitutions must be changed; their liberties must be abridged; and those who shall be most infamously active in changing their constitutions and abridging their liberties must, by an express provision, be exempted from punishment.

I do not exaggerate the matter, sir, when I extend these observations to all the colonists. The Parliament meant to extend the effects of their proceedings to all the colonists. The plan on which their proceedings are formed extends to them all. From an incident of no very uncommon or atrocious nature, which happened in one colony, in one town in that colony, and in which only a few of the inhabitants of that town took a part, an occasion has been taken by those who probably intended it, and who certainly prepared the way for it, to impose upon that colony, and to lay a foundation and a precedent for imposing upon all the rest, a system of statutes, arbitrary, unconstitutional, oppressive in every view, and in every degree subversive of the rights and inconsistent with even the name of freemen.

Were the colonists so blind as not to discern the consequences of these measures? Were they so supinely inactive as to take no steps for guarding against them? They were not. They ought not to have been so. We saw a breach made in those barriers which our ancestors, British and American, with so much care, with so much danger, with so much treasure and with so much blood, had erected, cemented, and established for the security of their liberties, and—with filial piety let us mention it—of ours. We saw the attack actually begun upon one part; ought we to have folded our hands in indolence, to have lulled our eyes in slumbers, till the attack was carried on so as to become irresistible in every part? Sir, I presume to think not. We were roused; we were alarmed, as we had reason to be. But still our measures have been such as the spirit of liberty and of loyalty directed; not such as the spirit of sedition or of disaffection would pursue. Our counsels have been conducted without rashness and faction; our resolutions have been taken without frenzy or fury.

That the sentiments of every individual concerning that important object—his liberty—might be known and regarded, meetings have been held and deliberations carried on in every particular district. That the sentiments of all those individuals might gradually and regularly be collected into a single point, and the conduct of each inspired and directed by the result of the whole united, county committees, provincial conventions, a continental congress have been appointed, have met and resolved. By this means a chain—more inestimable, and, while the necessity for it continues, we hope, more indissoluble than one of gold—a chain of freedom has been formed, of which every individual in these colonies who is willing to preserve the greatest of human blessings—his liberty—has the pleasure of beholding himself a link.

Are these measures, sir, the brats of disloyalty, of disaffection? There are miscreants among us, wasps that suck poison from the most salubrious flowers, who tell us they are. They tell us that all those assemblies are unlawful, and unauthorized by our constitutions; and that all their deliberations and resolutions are so many transgressions of the duty of subjects. The utmost malice brooding over the utmost baseness, and nothing but such a hated commixture, must have hatched this calumny. Do not those men know—would they have others not to know—that it was impossible for the inhabitants of the same province, and for the legislatures of the different provinces, to communicate their sentiments to one another in the modes appointed for such purposes by their different constitutions? Do not they know—would they have others not to know—that all this was rendered impossible by those very persons who now, or whose minions now, urge this objection against us? Do not they know—would they have others not to know—that the different assemblies who could be dissolved by the governors were, in consequence of ministerial mandates, dissolved by them whenever they attempted to turn their attention to the greatest objects which, as guardians of the liberty of their constituents, could be presented to their view? The arch enemy of the human race torments them only for those actions to which he has tempted, but to which he has not necessarily obliged them. Those men refine even upon infernal malice; they accuse, they threaten us—superlative impudence!—for taking those very steps which we were laid under the disagreeable necessity of taking by themselves, or by those in whose hateful service they are enlisted. But let them know that our counsels, our deliberations, our resolutions, if not authorized by the forms, because that was rendered impossible by our enemies, are nevertheless authorized by that which weighs much more in the scale of reason—by the spirit of our constitutions. Was the convention of the barons at Runnymede, where the tyranny of John was checked and Magna Charta was signed, authorized by the forms of the constitution? Was the convention Parliament that recalled Charles II. and restored the monarchy authorized by the forms of the constitution? Was the convention of lords and commons that placed King William on the throne, and secured the monarchy and liberty likewise, authorized by the forms of the constitution? I cannot conceal my emotions of pleasure when I observe that the objections of our

adversaries cannot be urged against us, but in common with those venerable assemblies, whose proceedings formed such an accession to British liberty and British renown.

. . . . . .

We can be at no loss in resolving that the King cannot, by his prerogative, alter the charter or constitution of the colony of Massachusetts Bay. Upon what principle could such an exertion of prerogative be justified? On the acts of Parliament? They are already proved to be void. On the discretionary power which the King has of acting where the laws are silent? That power must be subservient to the interest and happiness of those concerning whom it operates. But I go further. Instead of being supported by law, or the principles of prerogative, such an alteration is totally and absolutely repugnant to both. It is contrary to express law. The charter and constitution we speak of are confirmed by the only legislative power capable of confirming them, and no other power but that which can ratify can destroy. If it is contrary to express law, the consequence is necessary—that it is contrary to the principles of prerogative; for prerogative can operate only when the law is silent.

In no view can this alteration be justified, or so much as excused. It cannot be justified or excused by the acts of Parliament, because the authority of Parliament does not extend to it; it cannot be justified or excused by the operation of prerogative, because this is none of the cases in which prerogative can operate; it cannot be justified or excused by the legislative authority of the colony, because that authority never has been, and, I presume, never will be, given for any such purpose.

If I have proceeded hitherto, as I am persuaded I have, upon safe and sure ground, I can, with great confidence, advance a step further, and say that all attempts to alter the charter or constitution of that colony, unless by the authority of its own legislature, are violations of its rights, and illegal.

If those attempts are illegal, must not all force employed to carry them into execution be force employed against law, and without authority? The conclusion is unavoidable.

Have not British subjects, then, a right to resist such force—force acting without authority—force employed contrary to law—force employed to destroy the very existence of law and of liberty? They have, sir, and this right is secured to them both by the letter and the spirit of the British constitution, by which the measures and the conditions of their obedience are appointed. The British liberties, sir, and the means and the right of defending them, are not the grants of princes; and of what our princes never granted they surely can never deprive us. . . .

"*Id rex potest*," says the law, "*quod de jure potest*." The King's power is a power according to law. His commands, if the authority of Lord Chief-Justice Hale may be depended upon, are under the directive power of the law, and consequently invalid if unlawful. "Commissions," says my Lord Coke, "are legal, and are like the King's writs; and none are lawful but such as are allowed by the common law or warranted by some act of Parliament."

And now sir, let me appeal to the impartial tribunal of reason and truth; let me appeal to every unprejudiced and judicious observer of the laws of Britain, and of the constitution of the British government; let me appeal, I say, whether the principles on which I argue, or the principles on which alone my arguments can be opposed, are those which ought to be adhered to and acted upon; which of them are most consonant to our laws and liberties; which of them have the strongest, and are likely to have the most effectual tendency to establish and secure the royal power and dignity.

Are we deficient in loyalty to his Majesty? Let our conduct convict, for it will fully convict the insinuation that we are, of falsehood. Our loyalty has always appeared in the true form of loyalty; in obeying our sovereign according to law; let those who would require it in any other form know that we call the persons who execute his commands, when contrary to law, disloyal and traitors. Are we enemies to the power of the crown? No, sir, we are its best friends; this friendship prompts us to wish that the power of the crown may be firmly established on the most solid basis; but we know that the constitution alone will perpetuate the former and securely uphold the latter. Are our principles irreverent to majesty?

They are quite the reverse; we ascribe to it perfection almost divine. We say that the King can do no wrong; we say that to do wrong is the property, not of power, but of weakness. We feel oppression and will oppose it; but we know, for our constitution tells us, that oppression can never spring from the throne. We must, therefore, search elsewhere for its source; our infallible guide will direct us to it. Our constitution tells us that all oppression springs from the ministers of the throne. The attributes of perfection ascribed to the King are neither by the constitution nor in fact communicable to his ministers. They may do wrong; they have often done wrong; they have been often punished for doing wrong.

Here we may discern the true cause of all the impudent clamor and unsupported accusations of the ministers and of their minions that have been raised and made against the conduct of the Americans. Those ministers and minions are sensible that the opposition is directed, not against his Majesty, but against them, because they have abused his Majesty's confidence, brought discredit upon his government, and derogated from his justice. They see the public vengeance collected in dark clouds around them; their consciences tell them that it should be hurled like a thunderbolt at their guilty heads. Appalled with guilt and fear, they skulk behind the throne. Is it disrespectful to drag them into public view and make a distinction between them and his Majesty, under whose venerable name they daringly attempt to shelter their crimes? Nothing can more effectually contribute to establish his Majesty on the throne, and to secure to him the affections of his people, than this distinction. By it we are taught to consider all the blessings of government as flowing from the throne and to consider every instance of oppression as proceeding—which, in truth, is oftenest the case—from the ministers.

If, now, it is true that all force employed for the purposes so often mentioned is force unwarranted by any act of Parliament; unsupported by any principle of the common law; unauthorized by any commission from the crown; that, instead of being employed for the support of the constitution and his Majesty's government, it must be employed for the support of oppression and ministerial tyranny; if all this is true—and I flatter myself it appears to be true—can any one hesitate to say that to resist such force is lawful, and that both the letter and the spirit of the British constitution justify such resistance?

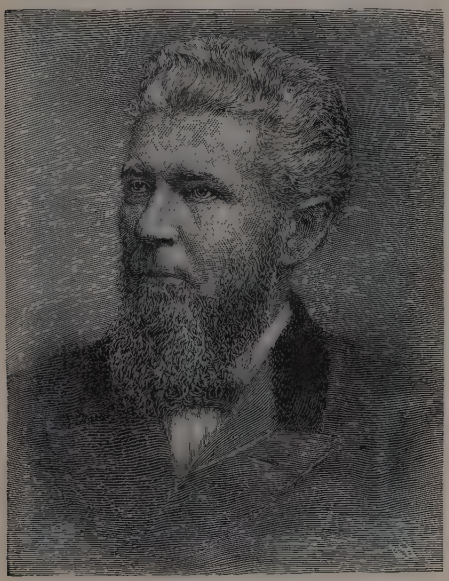
Resistance, both by the letter and the spirit of the British constitution, may be carried further, when necessity requires it, than I have carried it. Many examples in the English history might be adduced, and many authorities of the greatest weight might be brought to show, that when the King, forgetting his character and his dignity, has stepped forth and openly avowed and taken a part in such iniquitous conduct as has been described—in such cases, indeed, the distinction above mentioned, wisely made by the constitution for the security of the crown, could not be applied; because the crown had unconstitutionally rendered the application of it impossible.

Wilson, JAMES, agriculturist; born in Scotland, Aug. 16, 1835; came to the United States in 1851; engaged in farming in Iowa in 1855; served three terms in the Iowa legislature; member of Congress in 1873–77 and 1883–85; professor of agriculture and director of agricultural experiment station, Iowa Agricultural College, in 1890–97; and secretary, United States Department of Agriculture, from 1897. See WILEY, HARVEY W.

Wilson, JAMES GRANT, author; born in Edinburgh, Scotland, April 28, 1832; was brought to the United States in infancy; engaged in the publishing business with his father; served through the Civil War, attaining the rank of brigadier-general of volunteers; and at its close settled in New York City and engaged in literary work. He was author of *Bryant and His Friends; General Grant; Centennial History of the Diocese of New York; Life of Fitz-Greene Halleck; Sketches of Illustrious Soldiers; The Presidents of the United States; Thackeray in the United States; Memoir of Gen. Henry W. Halleck;* editor of *Fitz-Greene Halleck's Poems;* and, with Prof. John Fiske, of *Appleton's Cyclopædia of American Biography; Great Commanders Series;* and *Memorial History of the City of New York;* president of the New York Genealogical and Biographical Society in

1886–1902. He died in New York City, Feb. 1, 1914.

Wilson, JAMES F., lawyer; born in Newark, O., Oct. 10, 1828; admitted to the bar in 1852. He was elected to the

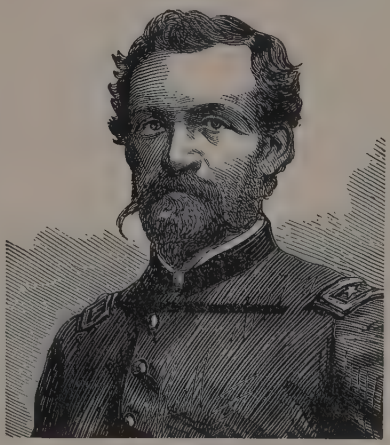


JAMES F. WILSON.

State constitutional convention in 1856; served in both branches of the State legislature; member of Congress 1861–69; chairman of the judiciary committee and one of the managers of the impeachment of President Johnson. He was appointed a Pacific Railroad commissioner in 1869; and was United States Senator from Iowa in 1883–95. He died in Fairfield, Ia., April 22, 1895.

Wilson, JAMES HARRISON, military engineer; born near Shawneetown, Ill., Sept. 2, 1837; graduated at West Point in 1860; entered the topographical engineer corps, and became first lieutenant in September, 1861. He served in the Port Royal expedition, and was at the capture of Fort Pulaski, for which he was brevetted major. He was aide to General McClellan at South Mountain and Antietam. In the Vicksburg campaign in 1863 he was assistant engineer and inspector-general of the Army of the Tennessee. He was active in the events near Chattanooga, and from May till August, 1864, commanded the 3d Division of Cavalry in the Army of the Potomac. In August and September he was in the Shenandoah campaign, and from October, 1864, till July, 1865, he was in command of a division of cavalry in the West and Southwest, being with Thomas in his campaign against Hood, driving the cavalry of the latter across the Harpeth River during the battle of Franklin.

At the close of Thomas's active campaign in middle Tennessee, the cavalry of the district, numbering about 20,000 men and horses, were encamped in Lauderdale county, in northern Alabama. Well disciplined, they prepared, in March, 1865, for an expedition into Alabama to co-operate with the army in the capture of Mobile; also for the capture of Selma and other places. General Wilson was in command of this cavalry. He left Chickasaw Landing, on the Tennessee River, March 22, with about 13,000 men and six batteries. His men were all mounted excepting 1,500, who were used as an escort for baggage and supply-trains of 250 wagons. There was also a pontoon-train of thirty boats, conveyed by fifty-six mule wagons. This



JAMES HARRISON WILSON.

force moved on diverging routes, to perplex the Confederates.

General Forrest, with his cavalry, was then on the Mobile and Ohio Railway, west of Columbus. But so rapid was Wilson's march that the guerilla chief could not reach him until he was far on his way tow-

ards Selma, on the Alabama River. Forrest pursued, but the movements of Wilson's troops were erratic, striking a Confederate force here and there, destroying property, and spreading great alarm. At Montevallo they destroyed iron-works, rolling-mills, and five important collieries. Near these the Nationals were attacked by Roddy and Crossland, but the Confederates, after a sharp fight, were routed. Onward the Nationals went. On April 8 they destroyed a bridge over the Cahawba at Centreville. Not far from Plantersville Wilson encountered Forrest, partially intrenched. He was straining every nerve to defend Selma, as it was one of the most important places in the Confederacy, because of its immense foundries of cannon and projectiles. In a fight that ensued the Confederates were routed and fled towards Selma, leaving behind them twenty-nine guns and 200 prisoners. Forrest was driven by his pursuers 24 miles, when the chase ended, 19 miles from Selma. The latter place had been strongly fortified. The race was hot, and Forrest won it, Wilson closely pursuing.

The latter came in sight of the city late in the afternoon and immediately assaulted its defences, carrying them without much difficulty. Although Forrest was in it with 7,000 troops, it was in possession of the Nationals before sunset. Forrest was not disposed to attempt its defence, but General Taylor, who was there, ordered him to hold it at all hazards. He did his best, but in the evening he and one-half his followers fled eastward, leaving in flames 25,000 bales of cotton stored in the city. Wilson destroyed the great foundries and other public property, and left Selma (April 10) a ghastly ruin. From Selma Wilson pushed to Montgomery, then under the military command of Gen. Wirt Adams. This officer did not wait for Wilson's arrival, but, setting on fire 90,000 bales of cotton stored there, he fled. The Nationals entered the town unopposed. Major Weston marched northward (April 12), and, near Wetumpka, on the Coosa, he destroyed five heavily laden steamboats.

Montgomery was surrendered to Wilson by the civil authorities, and after two days he crossed the Alabama and pushed on eastward to Columbus, Ga., on the east side of the Chattahoochee. He captured that city, with 1,200 men, fifty-two field-pieces, and a large quantity of small-arms and stores, losing only twenty of his own men. There the Nationals destroyed the Confederate ram *Jackson* and burned 115,000 bales of cotton, fifteen locomotives, and 250 cars; also a large quantity of public property—a manufactory of small-arms, an arsenal, four cotton factories, three paper-mills, gun-foundries, a rolling-mill, and a vast amount of stores. The Confederates burned their gunboat *Chattahoochee*, lying 12 miles below Columbus. Croxton had been raiding in another portion of Alabama while Wilson and the rest of his command were in the vicinity of the Alabama River and Chattahoochee. In the course of thirty days he had marched, skirmished, and destroyed along a line of 650 miles in extent, not once hearing of Wilson. He joined Wilson at Macon, Ga. (April 30), where the great raid ended. It had been useful in keeping Forrest and others from assisting the defenders of Mobile. During the raid Wilson's troops captured five fortified cities, 288 cannon, twenty-three colors, and 6,820 prisoners; and they destroyed a vast amount of public property of the Confederates of every kind. They lost 725 men, of whom ninety were killed. On May 10, 1865, he crowned his military achievements by capturing JEFFERSON DAVIS (*q. v.*). He had been brevetted major-general, United States army, in the preceding March. After retiring from the army he was engaged in civil engineering till May, 1898, when he was commissioned a major-general of volunteers for the war with Spain. He commanded the 1st Division of the 1st Army Corps in the occupation of Cuba and in the Porto Rico campaign. In 1900 he was assigned to the China Relief Expedition; commanded the American forces in Peking policing the parts of the city occupied by American troops. He was promoted to brigadier-general U. S. A. by special Act of Congress and retired in 1901, and was the representative of the American army at the coronation of King Edward VII. in 1902. His publications include *Lives of Andrew Alexander, General Grant, Gen. W. F. Smith, Gen. A. McD. McCook, Gen. John A. Rawlins*, and *Charles A. Dana*.

Wilson, JEREMIAH MORROW, jurist; born in Warren county, O., Nov. 25, 1828; was judge of the Court of Common Pleas of Fayette county, Ind., in 1860–65; judge of the Circuit Court in 1865–71; member of Congress in 1871–75; resumed the practice of law in Washington, D. C. Judge Wilson acted as attorney for the Union Pacific Railroad and the Mormon Church; defended the Sugar witnesses who had refused to testify before a Senate committee; was counsel in the court-martial of General Swain, and was connected with the "Alabama Claims" and the French "Spoliation" cases, and chief counsel to Admiral Schley. He died suddenly in Washington, D. C., Sept. 24, 1901.

Wilson, JOHN MOULDER, engineer; born in the District of Columbia, Oct. 8, 1837; was graduated at the U. S. Military Academy Corps in 1863. He took part in the battles of Gaines's Mills and Malvern Hill; the capture of Mobile and Fort Blakely. He planned the first defences of the national capital in 1861, superintended the construction of the defences at Harper's Ferry, Baltimore, Vicksburg, New Orleans, etc., and superintended the construction of Forts Ontario, Niagara, Stevens, and Canby; also the completion of the Washington monument and the construction of the Army Medical Museum and Library, etc. In 1897 he received the Congressional medal of honor for gallantry in the battle of Malvern Hill. He was chief of engineers 1897–1901, then retired.

Wilson, RUFUS ROCKWELL, author; born in Troy, Pa., March 14, 1865; engaged in journalism and literary and political reform work; author of *Rambles in Colonial Byways; Washington — the Capital City; New York, Old and New; Lincoln in Caricature; New England in Letters;* editor of *Burnaby's Travels Through North America; Heath's Memoirs of the American War; Moultrie's Memoirs of the American Revolution,* etc.

Wilson, THEODORE DELEVAN, naval constructor; born in Brooklyn, N. Y., May 11, 1840; was a non-commissioned officer in the national army during the Civil War and served till 1864. In 1866 he was appointed assistant naval constructor, in 1868 instructor of naval architecture in the U. S. Naval Academy, and in 1882 chief of the bureau of construction. He designed ten warships, and wrote *Shipbuilding, Theoretical and Practical.* He died in Charlestown, Mass., June 29, 1896.

Wilson, WILLIAM BAUCHOP, statesman; born in Blantyre, Scotland, April 2, 1862; came to the United States in 1871; engaged in coal-mining in 1871–98; defeated for the legislature in 1888, and for Congress in 1892; assisted in organizing the United Mine Workers of America, 1890; was secretary-treasurer, National Union of Miners, 1900–08; member of Congress, 1907–13; chairman of the House Committee on Labor, 1911–13; appointed Secretary of the new Department of Labor, March 5, 1913.

Wilson, WILLIAM LYNE, educator; born in Jefferson county, Va., May 3, 1843; graduated at Columbian College in 1860; served in the Civil War as a private in the 12th Virginia Cavalry; was professor of ancient languages in Columbian College in 1865–71; studied law, and was admitted to the bar in 1867, and later began practice in Charlestown, W. Va. He was president of the University of West Virginia in 1882–83; member of Congress in 1882–94; became chairman of the committee on ways and means in 1893, and in this capacity introduced the tariff bill that bears his name, which was adopted in 1894. He was Postmaster-General in 1895–97, and in the latter year became president of Washingto and Lee University. He died in Lexington, Va., Oct. 17, 1900. The Wilson tariff bill was not a radical measure when tested by the promises of 1892. Sober-minded legislators did not accept the revolutionary doctrines which their party had hastily adopted in the excitement of a nominating convention. As Wilson observed in his opening speech in the House: "We know that not all who march bravely in the parade are found in line when the musketry begins to rattle. This is always the case. Reform is beautiful upon the mountain-top or in the clouds, but ofttimes very unwelcome as it approaches our own thresholds." In brief, the new tariff measure provided for the adoption, wherever practicable, of *ad valorem* instead of specific duties, and the "freeing from taxes of those great materials of industry that lie at the basis of production." There was

an extension of the free list, including such important commodities as iron-ore, lumber, coal, and wool. The original House bill was hardly recognizable from the amendments which remodelled it. Iron-ore, coal, and sugar were taken off the free list in response to sectional interests. The fixing of the sugar schedule led to charges of corruption of senators by the sugar trust: they were reported to have bought and sold stock on the advice of members of the finance committee who were reshaping the bill. A committee of investigation found that a few senators had speculated in sugar stock, Quay frankly admitting that he had purchased for a rise; and the scandal permanently injured the reputation of the Senate. Specific duties in place of *ad valorem* were restored on many commodities, and rates were generally advanced in many lines of manufacture in the interest of protection. Leaders of the Democratic party acknowledged their mortification.

WILSON, WOODROW

Wilson, Woodrow, statesman; born in Staunton, Va., Dec. 28, 1856; graduated at Princeton College in 1879; studied law at the University of Virginia, and took a special course at Johns Hopkins in 1883–85; was professor of history and political economy at Bryn Mawr College in 1885–88, and at Wesleyan University in 1888–90; professor of jurisprudence and politics at Princeton, 1890–1902; president of the university, 1902–10, when he resigned to accept the Democratic nomination for governor of New Jersey, to which office he was elected by a plurality of 49,056. His publications include *Congressional Government, a Study in American Politics; The State: Elements of Historical and Practical Politics; Division and Reunion, 1829–89; Life of George Washington; A History of the American People,* five volumes; *An Old Master and Other Political Essays,* etc.; *Constitutional Government.* Also see Volume III. in this encyclopædia on "Democracy in the United States"; and in Volume IV., articles on "The Tariff Make-believe" and in the same volume "United States Government and the States."

Almost from the day he entered political office, Governor Wilson became the most conspicuous candidate for the Democratic Presidential nomination, and after the adjournment of the Legislature he engaged in a personal campaign that took him to all the great political centres of the country. The success of his efforts to bring about a multitude of reforms in his own State made the masses everywhere eager to hear his exposition of views regarding the principles and problems of broad, national concern, and in his speeches and messages he seemed to touch all vital questions. On July 2, 1912, he was nominated as the candidate for the Presidency by the Democratic party in convention at Baltimore on the forty-sixth ballot. In the election Nov. 5, 1912, he carried three-fourths of the States with over four-fifths of the votes in the Electoral College.

The Awakened Nation.—In his speech accepting the nomination for the Presidency Governor Wilson said:

"We stand in the presence of an awakened nation, impatient of partisan make-believe. The public man who does not realize the fact and feel its stimulation must be singularly unsusceptible to the influences that stir in every quarter about him. The nation has awakened to a sense of neglected ideals and neglected duties; to a consciousness that the rank and file of her people find life very hard to sustain, that her young men find opportunity embarrassed, and that her older men find business difficult to renew and maintain because of circumstances of privilege and private advantage which have interlaced their subtle threads throughout almost every part of the framework of our present law. She has awakened to the knowledge that she has lost certain cherished liberties and wasted priceless resources which she had solemnly undertaken to hold in trust for posterity and for all mankind; and to the conviction that she stands confronted with an occasion for constructive statesmanship such as has not arisen since the days in which her government was set up.

Woodrow Wilson

"Plainly, it is a new age. The tonic of such a time is very exhilarating. It requires self-restraint not to attempt too much, and yet it would be cowardly to attempt too little. The path of duty soberly and bravely trod is the way to service and distinction, and many adventurous feet seek to set out upon it. There never was a time when impatience and suspicion were more keenly aroused by private power selfishly employed. Nor was the country ever more susceptible to unselfish appeals or to the high arguments of sincere justice. These are the unmistakable symptoms of an awakening.

"It is in the broad light of this new day that we stand face to face—with what? Plainly, not with questions of party, not with a contest for office, not with a petty struggle for advantage, Democrat against Republican, Liberal against Conservative, Progressive against Reactionary. With great questions of right and of justice rather—questions of national development, of the development of character and of standards of action no less than of a better business system, more free, more equitable, more open to ordinary men, practicable to live under, tolerable to work under, or a better fiscal system whose taxes shall not come out of the pockets of the many to go into the pockets of the few, and within whose intricacies special privilege may not so easily find covert. The forces of the nation are asserting themselves against every form of special privilege and private control, and are seeking bigger things than they have ever heretofore achieved. They are sweeping away what is unrighteous in order to vindicate once more the essential rights of human life; and, what is very serious for us, they are looking to us for guidance, disinterested guidance, at once honest and fearless.

"At such a time, and in the presence of such circumstances, what is the meaning of our platform, and what is our responsibility under it? What is our duty and our purpose? The platform is meant to show that we know what the nation is thinking about, what it is most concerned about, what it wishes corrected, and what it desires to see attempted that is new and constructive and intended for its long future. But for us it is a very practical document. We are not about to ask the people of the United States to adopt our platform; we are about to ask them to intrust us with office and power and the guidance of their affairs. They will wish to know what sort of men we are and of what definite purpose; what translation of action and of policy we intend to give to the general terms of the platform which the convention at Baltimore put forth, should we be elected. The platform is not a programme. A programme must consist of measures, administrative acts, and acts of legislation.

"What is there to do? It is hard to sum up the great task, but apparently this is the sum of the matter: There are two great things to do. One is to set up the rule of justice and of right in such matters as the tariff, the regulation of the trusts and the prevention of monopoly, the adaptation of our banking and currency laws to the varied uses to which our people must put them, the treatment of those who do the daily labor in our factories and mines and throughout all our great industrial and commercial undertakings, and the political life of the people of the Philippines, for whom we hold governmental power in trust, for their service, not our own.

"The other, the additional duty, is the great task of protecting our people and our resources and of keeping open to the whole people the doors of opportunity through which they must pass. In the performance of this second great duty we are face to face with questions of conservation and of development, questions of forests and water-powers and mines and waterways, of the building of an adequate merchant marine, and the setting up of every safeguard needed by a great, industrious, expanding nation.

"These are all great matters upon which everybody should be heard. We have got into trouble in recent years chiefly because these large things, which ought to have been handled by taking counsel with as large a number of persons as possible, because they touched every interest and the life of every class and region, have, in fact, been too often handled in private conference. They have been settled by very small, and often deliberately exclusive, groups of men who

undertook to speak for the whole nation, or, rather, for themselves in the terms of the whole nation — very honestly it may be, but very ignorantly sometimes, and very shortsightedly, too—a poor substitute for genuine common counsel. No group of directors, economic or political, can speak for a people. They have neither the point of view nor the knowledge. Our difficulty is not that wicked and designing men have plotted against us, but that our common affairs have been determined upon too narrow a view, and by too private an initiative. Our task now is to effect a great readjustment and get the forces of the whole people once more into play. We need no revolution; we need no excited change; we need only a new point of view and a new method and spirit of counsel.

"We are servants of the people, the whole people. The nation has been unnecessarily, unreasonably at war within itself. Interest has clashed with interest when there were common principles of right and of fair dealing which might and should have bound them all together, not as rivals, but as partners. As the servants of all we are bound to undertake the great duty of accommodation and adjustment.

"We cannot undertake it except in a spirit which some find it hard to understand. Some people only smile when you speak of yourself as a servant of the people; it seems to them like affectation or mere demagoguery. They ask what the unthinking crowd knows or comprehends of great complicated matters of government. They shrug their shoulders and lift their eyebrows when you speak as if you really believed in Presidential primaries, in the direct election of United States senators, and in an utter publicity about everything that concerns government from the sources of campaign funds to the intimate debate of the highest affairs of state.

"They do not, or will not, comprehend the solemn thing that is in your thought. You know as well as they do that there are all sorts and conditions of men—the unthinking mixed with the wise, the reckless with the prudent, the unscrupulous with the fair and honest—and you know what they sometimes forget, that every class, without exception, affords a sample of the mixture, the learned and the fortunate no less than the uneducated and the struggling mass. But you see more than that. You see that these multitudes of men constitute somehow an organic and noble whole, a single people, and that they have interests which no man can privately determine without their knowledge and counsel. That is the meaning of representative government itself. Representative government is nothing more nor less than an effort to give voice to this great body through spokesmen chosen out of every grade and class.

"You may think that I am wandering off into a general disquisition that has little to do with the business in hand; but I am not. This is business — business of the deepest sort. It will solve our difficulties if you will but take it as business."

President-elect Wilson gave out the following statement Nov. 6, 1912:

Assurance to Business Men.—"The result fills me with the hope that the thoughtful progressive forces of the nation may now at last unite to give the country freedom of enterprise and a government released from all selfish and private influences devoted to justice and progress. There is absolutely nothing for the honest and enlightened business men of the country to fear.

"No man whose business is conducted without violation of the rights of free competition and without such private understandings and secret alliances as violate the principle of our law and the policy of all wholesome commerce and enterprise need fear either interference or embarrassment from the administration.

"Our hope and purpose is now to bring all the free forces of the nation into active and intelligent co-operation and to give to our prosperity a freshness and spirit and a confidence such as it has not had in our time. The responsibilities of the task are tremendous, but with the confidence of the people behind us everything that is right is possible.

"My own ambition will be more than satisfied if I may be permitted to be the spokesman of the nation's thoughtful purposes in these great matters."

Mr. Wilson made several tours before

he was nominated as the candidate for the Presidency by the Democratic party in convention at Baltimore on the forty-sixth ballot. From his public utterances the following extracts show the views of the "scholar in politics":

Misgovernment of Our Cities.—"We have had to admit the fact that most of the well-governed cities of the world are in Europe, and that many of the worst-governed cities are in the United States.

"I take it that the problem that we have set ourselves is the problem of responsibility. We want governments which respond to public opinion, and we have not been able to get them. The explanation you can hang on your wall, if you choose, if you will only take the pains to buy a copy of that old cartoon in *Harper's Weekly*, by Tom Nast, which represented the Tweed ring in New York as an actual circle of men, each with his thumb to his neighbor, the title of the picture being 'Twa'n't Me.'

"We cannot fix responsibility, because responsibility depends upon certain things. It depends upon obviousness in the process of government. It depends upon intelligibility in its methods and on openness in the counsels of governments."

Trusts and the People.—"What is necessary in order to rectify the whole mass of business of this kind [the trusts] is that those who control it should entirely change their point of view. They are trustees, not masters, of private property, not only because their power is derived from a multitude of men, but also because in investments it affects a multitude of men. It determines the development or decay of communities. They must regard themselves as representatives of a public power. There can be no reasonable jealousy of public regulation in such matters, because the opportunities of all men are affected.

"It should be recognized as a fundamental principle of our law dealing with corporations that, though we call them artificial persons, the only persons we are really going to deal with in imposing the penalties of the law upon them are the persons who constitute their directors and officers.

"We ought by this time to have seen the futility—I might even say the silliness—of trying to punish illegal action by penalizing corporations as such. Fines punish the stockholders; forfeiture of charter and of the franchise which they are exercising paralyzes industry and confuses business. Men do not cease to be individuals by becoming officers of corporations. The responsibility for violating the law or for neglecting public interests ought to fall upon them as individuals."

Initiative, Referendum, and Recall.—"Among the remedies proposed in recent years have been the initiative and referendum in the field of legislation and the recall in the field of administration. These measures are supposed to be characteristic of the most radical programmes, and they are supposed to be meant to change the very character of our government. They have no such purpose. Their intention is to restore, not to destroy, representative government. It must be remembered by every candid man who discusses these matters that we are contrasting the operation of the initiative and the referendum, not with the representative government which we possess in theory and which we have long persuaded ourselves that we possessed in fact, but with the actual state of affairs, with legislative processes which are carried on in secret, responding to the impulse of subsidized machines and carried through by men whose unhappiness it is to realize that they are not their own masters, but puppets in a game.

"If we felt that we had genuine representative government in our State legislatures no one would propose the initiative or referendum in America. They are being proposed now as a means of bringing our representatives back to the consciousness that what they are bound in duty and in mere policy to do is to represent the sovereign people whom they profess to serve, and not the private interests which creep into their counsels by way of machine orders and committee conferences. The most ardent and successful advocates of the initiative and referendum regard them as a sobering means of obtaining genuine representative action on the part of legislative bodies. They do not mean to set anything aside. They mean to restore and reinvigorate, rather.

"The recall is a means of administrative control. If properly regulated and devised, it is a means of restoring to administrative officials what the initiative and referendum restores to legislators—namely, a sense of direct responsibility to the people who choose them."

Recall of Judges.—"The recall of judges is another matter. Judges are not lawmakers. They are not administrators. Their duty is not to determine what the law shall be, but to determine what the law is. Their independence, their sense of dignity and of freedom, is of the first consequence to the stability of the State. To apply to them the principle of the recall is to set up the idea that determinations of what the law is must respond to popular impulse and to popular judgment. It is sufficient that the people should have the power to change the law when they will. It is not necessary that they should directly influence by threat of recall those who merely interpret the law already established. The importance and desirability of the recall as a means of administrative control ought not to be obscured by drawing it into this other and very different field."

Tariff Legislation.—"Everybody will agree that if the tariff policy is indeed to be protective and to seek the objects which it has always pretended to seek, it is perfectly legitimate that it should have to pay a very careful regard to the business interests of the country taken as a whole. But that is a very different matter from paying regard to the individual interests of particular undertakings and of particular groups of men. The long and short of the whole experience, as we now see it, is that our whole tariff legislation has degenerated from a policy of protection into a policy of patronage. The party which has stood most consistently for the so-called system of protection has derived not a little of its power from the support of the great business interests of the country.

"I do not mean the moral support merely. I mean that it has been supplied with immense sums of money for the conduct of its campaigns and the maintenance of its organization, and that, whether consciously or unconsciously, it has established a partnership with the manufacturing interests of the country which has deprived it of its liberty of action in all matters touching the tariff. It is bound by obligations tacit and explicit to see that those interests are not damaged which have been its most stalwart backers and supporters.

"The revision of the tariff, of course, looms big and central in the programme, because it is in the tariff schedules that half the monopolies of the country have found cover and protection and opportunity. We do not mean to strike at any essential economic arrangement, but we do mean to drive all beneficiaries of governmental policy into the open and demand of them by what principle of national advantage, as contrasted with selfish privilege, they enjoy the extraordinary assistance extended to them."

Corporations.—"The regulation of corporations is hardly less significant and central. We have made many experiments in this difficult matter, and some of them have been crude and hurtful, but our thought is slowly clearing. We are beginning to see, for one thing, how public-service corporations, at any rate, can be governed with great advantage to the public without serious detriment to themselves, as undertakings of private capital. Experience is removing both prejudice and fear in this field, and it is likely that within the very near future we shall have settled down to some common, rational, and effective policy. The regulation of corporations of other sorts lies intimately connected with the general question of monopoly, a question which ramifies in a thousand directions, but the intricate threads of which, we are slowly beginning to perceive, constitute a decipherable pattern. Measures will here also frame themselves soberly enough as we think our way forward."

Monetary Reform.—"Beyond all these, waiting to be solved, lying as yet in the hinterland of party policy, lurks the great question of banking reform. The plain fact is that control of credit—at any rate, of credit upon any large scale—is dangerously concentrated in this country. The large money resources of the country are not at the command of those who do not submit to the direction and domination of small groups of capitalists, who wish to

keep the economic development of the country under their own eye and guidance. The great monopoly in this country is the money monopoly. So long as that exists our old variety and freedom and individual energy of development are out of the question. A great industrial nation is controlled by its system of credit. Our system of credit is concentrated. The growth of the nation, therefore, and all our activities are in the hands of a few men, who, even if their action be honest and intended for the public interest, are necessarily concentrated upon the great undertakings in which their own money is involved, and who necessarily, by very reason of their own limitations, chill and check and destroy genuine economic freedom. This is the greatest question of all, and to this statesmen must address themselves with an earnest determination to serve the long future and the true liberties of men."

Democratic Platform.—"If we recount the items of the liberal programme to which the country is now looking forward, it will be easy to see that it is already the programme of the Democratic party. The first item of that programme is that the machinery of political control must be put in the hands of the people. That means, translated into concrete terms, direct primaries, a short ballot, and, wherever necessary, the initiative, the referendum, and the recall. These things are being desired and obtained, not by way of our governmental system, but for the purpose of recovering what seems to have been lost—the people's control of their own instruments, their right to exercise a free and constant choice in the management of their own affairs.

"Another great item of the programme is that the service rendered the people by the national government must be of a more extended sort and of a kind not only to protect it against monopoly, but also to facilitate its life. We are, therefore, in favor of postal savings banks and of a parcels post, and feel with some chagrin that we have lagged behind the other free nations of the world in establishing those manifestly useful and necessary instruments of our common life."

Belated Policies.—In an address before the Michigan Press Association at Detroit on Jan. 18, 1912, Governor Wilson discussed the Progressive movement, saying in part:

"The great progressive sentiment which now more and more dominates the country, and only awaits its opportunity to determine the policies of the government, is not accidental, is not merely a passing phase expressive of the temperament of an eager people. It is a thing that has arisen steadily by natural and inevitable force, like the tides of the ocean. The most profitable thing that we can do, in order to reassure ourselves, is to ask why this great body of progressive opinion has grown so strong, why it has spread to almost every part of the country. The sum of the matter is that our life has changed and that our policies are belated. Our laws lag almost a generation behind our business conditions and our political exigencies. Those who insist upon undertaking the adjustment, those who argue that our laws should be brought up to date—to the date marked upon the calendar of our economic advance and change—are called radicals, not because they would change the facts, but because they would adjust the law to the facts.

Wilson's Creek, Battle at. After the battle at Dug Springs (*q.v.*), General Lyon fell back to Springfield, Mo. McCulloch was impressed by the result of the battle with the opinion that Lyon's troops outnumbered the Confederates in that region. Price thought not, and favored an immediate advance upon them. McCulloch would not consent; but, receiving an order from General Polk, Aug. 4, 1861, to march against Lyon, he consented to join his forces with those of Price in attacking Lyon on condition of his (the Texan) having the chief command. Price, anxious to drive the Nationals out of Missouri, consented. McCulloch divided the Confederate forces into three columns, and at midnight, Aug. 7, their whole army, 20,000 strong, moved towards Springfield under McCulloch, Pearce, and Price. They encamped, on the 9th, near Wilson's Creek, 10 miles south of Springfield, wearied and half-famished, for they had received only half-rations for ten days and had eaten nothing for twenty-four hours. Lyon's force was so small that there seemed great risk in ac-

cepting battle, but he feared a retreat would be more disastrous. So he proceeded to attack the Confederates before they could rest. Before daylight, Aug. 10, he marched in two columns—one led by himself, the other by Colonel Sigel. His own was to attack their front; Sigel's, composed of 1,200 men, with six cannon, was to attack their rear.

A battle began at an early hour. Lyon's column bore the brunt. Wherever the storm raged fiercest, there he appeared, encouraging his troops by words and deeds. First his horse was shot under him; then he received a wound in his leg, and another in his head, which partially stunned him. Swinging his sword over his head and ordering his men to follow, he dashed forward, but soon fell by a rifle-ball that passed through his body near his heart. On the death of Lyon, the command of his column devolved on Major Sturgis. Certain defeat seemed to await the little band. Sigel had attacked their rear with his six cannon and was at first successful, driving the Confederates out of their camp. He was suddenly defeated by a trick. Arrayed like National soldiers, a heavy force of Confederates approached Sigel's line. Deceived, he greeted them in a friendly way, when suddenly they displayed a Confederate flag and attacked the Nationals in the most furious manner, capturing Sigel's battery and scattering all but 300 of his men. He saved one field-piece, but lost his regimental colors.

Twice afterwards during the battle the same trick was played, but the last time without success. The belligerents were fighting desperately after Lyon's death. The Union column stood firm a long time against an overwhelming force. At length it began to bend, when Captain Granger dashed forward with portions of Kansas, Iowa, and Missouri regiments, supported by Dubois's battery, and smote the Confederates so fearfully that they fled from the field in broken masses to the shelter of the woods. The battle ended, and the Confederates held the field. The Nationals fell back to Springfield, and at 3 A.M. the next day, under the general command of Colonel Sigel, the entire Union force began a successful retreat, in good order, to Rolla, 125 miles distant, safely conducting a government train 5 miles in length and valued at $1,500,000. The Confederates did not follow. The battle of Wilson's Creek had ended after raging five hours. It was very sanguinary. The Nationals lost between 1,200 and 1,300 men, and the Confederates about 3,000.

Winans, Ross, inventor; born in Vernon, N. J., October, 1796; showed an inventive bent early in life; and was sent to England as an agent of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad to examine English railroad systems. Returning to the United States he constructed the first locomotive used with success on the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad. He also designed the eight-wheeled car and the camel-back locomotive; founded in Baltimore the most extensive railway machine works in the United States. He was chosen to the extra session of the legislature of Maryland in 1861, but was made a prisoner in Fort McHenry. He died in Baltimore, Md., April 11, 1877.

His son, THOMAS DEKAY, engineer, born in Vernon, N. J., Dec. 6, 1820, became a partner with his father and his brother, WILLIAM LEWIS. In 1843, with Andrew M. Eastwick, and Joseph Harrison, he went to Russia in the place of his father, who had been invited to St. Petersburg by the Russian government, and executed a contract to construct the rolling-stock of the railroad between St. Petersburg and Moscow, for $3,000,000. Later other contracts were concluded which proved very lucrative. He invented with his father and brother a system of steam navigation known as the cigar-ship, and a tubular arrangement by which young trout could be easily fed. He died in Newport, R. I., June 11, 1878.

Winchester, BATTLES OF. Banks had won a race with "Stonewall" Jackson for Winchester, but was not allowed to rest there, for the Confederates, close behind him, were 20,000 strong, while the Nationals numbered only 7,000. General Ewell, who lay within a mile and a half of Winchester, attacked Banks before the dawn, May 24, 1862, and a furious battle ensued in front of Winchester. The Confederates were kept in check five hours. Meanwhile, Jackson's whole force was ordered up, when Banks, perceiving that further resistance would lead to destruc-

tion, and having sent his trains forward towards the Potomac, gave an order for a retreat in the same direction. They passed rapidly through the town, assailed in the streets by Confederates of both sexes, firing from windows and throwing hand-grenades, hot water, and every sort of missile. Late in the afternoon the wearied and battle-worn troops reached Martinsburg, rested a few hours, and then pushed on 12 miles to the Potomac, opposite Williamsport. Before midnight a thousand camp-fires were blazing on the slopes overlooking the river. The pursuit was abandoned at Martinsburg. Within forty-eight hours after hearing of Kenly's disaster, Banks, with his little army, had marched 53 miles and fought several skirmishes and one severe battle. After menacing Harper's Ferry, where General Saxton was in command, Jackson beat a hasty retreat up the valley. Banks's loss during this masterly retreat was thirty-eight killed, 155 wounded, and 711 missing. These were exclusive of Kenly's command and the sick and wounded in hospitals at Strasburg and Winchester. Only fifty-five of his 500 wagons were lost. Jackson's loss, including that at Front Royal, was sixty-eight killed and 329 wounded. His gains were over 9,000 small-arms and 3,000 prisoners, including 700 sick and wounded.

On Aug. 7, 1864, General Sheridan assumed the command of the Middle Division of the army, with his headquarters at Harper's Ferry. He spent a month in getting his forces well in hand for an aggressive campaign. Early tried to lure him up the valley, in order that he might flank him. Sheridan was too wary for him, and kept the entrance into Maryland closely guarded against Confederate raids. General Grant visited him (Sept. 16) to view the situation. Sheridan was anxious to begin offensive operations. The lieutenant-general had confidence in Sheridan, and, after deliberation, left him, with the laconic order, "Go in!" Sheridan and Early then confronted each other at Opequan Creek, a few miles east of Winchester. Sheridan watched his antagonist closely, and when, on Sept. 18, Early weakened his lines by sending half his army on a reconnoissance to Martinsburg (which Averill repulsed), Sheridan put his forces under arms, and, at 3 A.M. on Sept. 19, they were in motion towards Winchester, Wilson's cavalry leading, followed by Wright's and Emory's corps.

Wilson crossed the Opequan at dawn, charging upon and sweeping away all opposers, and securing a place, within two miles of Winchester, for the deployment of the army. There they formed, with Wright's corps on the left, flanked by Wilson's cavalry, Emory in the centre, and Crook's Kanawha infantry in reserve in the rear. Early had turned back towards Winchester before Sheridan was ready for battle, and strongly posted his men in a fortified position on a series of detached hills. Averill had followed them closely from Bunker's Hill, and he and Merritt enveloped Winchester on the east and north with cavalry. Between the two armies lay a broken, wooded country. The Nationals attempted to reach Early's vulnerable left wing and centre, and, in so doing, encountered a terrible tempest of shells. They charged Early's centre furiously and carried his first line. The assailing columns were quickly hurled back by two powerful divisions. It seemed, for a moment, as if the Nationals had lost the day. The Confederates eagerly sought to seize the only gorge in the mountains through which the Nationals might retreat, if compelled to. This was well defended by a few troops at first. Very soon the Confederates were pushed back to their lines. This was followed by the rapid rallying of the broken columns of the Nationals and reforming of their line, which speedily advanced.

There was now a most sanguinary battle until 4 P.M., when a loud shout was heard from beyond the woods on the Union right. It was from Crook's (8th) Corps—the Army of Western Virginia—which, with Torbert's cavalry, pressed forward in the face of a murderous fire and fell heavily upon Early's left. At the same time there was a general charge upon the Confederate centre by the infantry, and by Wilson's cavalry on Early's right, driving the Confederates to the fortified heights. Before 5 P.M. the latter were carried, and Early's broken columns were flying through Winchester and up the valley towards Strasburg, in full retreat. They left behind them 2,500 of their number as

prisoners, with nine battle-flags and five pieces of artillery. They were pursued until dark. The Confederates lost about 1,000 men besides the prisoners; Sheridan's loss was about 3,000. Besides the prisoners taken in battle there were about 3,000 wounded left in Winchester.

Winchester, JAMES, military officer; born in White Level, Md., Feb. 6, 1752; was appointed a lieutenant in the 3d Maryland Regiment in May, 1776; was made a prisoner by the British and exchanged in 1780. On March 27, 1812, he was commissioned a brigadier-general and assigned to duty in the Army of the Northwest, under Harrison. He was made prisoner by General Proctor at Frenchtown, Jan. 22, 1813, and, with other officers, was sent to Quebec. At Beauport, near that city, they were kept in confinement more than a year, and were exchanged in the spring of 1814. General Winchester resigned his commission in March, 1815. He died near Gallatin, Tenn., July 27, 1826.

Winchester, OLIVER FISHER, manufacturer; born in Boston, Mass., in 1810; acquired great wealth, which he invested in the manufacture of rifles; was president of the Winchester Repeating-Arms Company; and lieutenant-governor of Connecticut in 1868. He gave considerable to Yale College and founded for it the Winchester Observatory. He died in New Haven, Conn., Dec. 10, 1880.

Winder, JOHN HENRY, military officer; born in Maryland in 1800; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1820; promoted captain of the 1st Artillery in October, 1842; served in the Mexican War, winning distinction at Contreras, Churubusco, Chapultepec, and the fall of the city of Mexico; promoted major in November, 1860; resigned in the following April and joined the Confederate army, in which he was appointed a brigadier-general and given command of Richmond, having under his charge Belle Isle and Libby prison. Later he was placed in command of the Andersonville prison, Ga. He died in Branchville, S. C., Feb. 9, 1865. See CONFEDERATE PRISONS.

Winder, WILLIAM HENRY, military officer; born in Somerset county, Md., Feb. 18, 1775; graduated at the University of Pennsylvania; studied law, and began practice in Baltimore in 1798. In March,

WILLIAM HENRY WINDER.

1812, he was appointed lieutenant-colonel of the 14th United States Infantry, and colonel in July following. He served on the Niagara frontier, under General Smyth, and in March, 1813, was commissioned brigadier-general. Made prisoner at Stony Creek, Canada, he was exchanged, and became inspector-general, May 9, 1814. Assigned to the command of the 10th District (July 2, 1814), he was in command of the troops in the battle of Bladensburg, and engaged in the unsuccessful defence of Washington, D. C. General Winder resumed the practice of his profession after the war, in which he was distinguished, and served with credit in the Senate of Maryland. He died in Baltimore, Md., May 24, 1824.

Wind-gap, Penn., unlike the far-famed Delaware Water-gap in the same cluster of mountains, is a deep depression of the summit of the range, is quite level on both sides of the road for a considerable

distance, and exhibits none of the majestic precipices of the latter. The earth is covered with masses of angular rocks, among which shoot up cedar and other trees and shrubs, chiefly of the coniferæ order; but the road, by industry, is made quite smooth. The hills rise on each side of the Gap to an altitude of eight hundred feet, clothed and crowned with trees. It was through this pass in the mountains that two expert walkers crossed to a spur of the Pocono when measuring the extent of a district of country northwest of the Delaware, for the proprietors of Pennsylvania, in 1737. The Indians had agreed, for a certain consideration, to sell a tract of land included within prescribed points on the river, and extending back as far as a man could "walk in a day and a half." The proprietors immediately advertised for the most expert walkers in the province, and they performed a journey, in the day and a half, of eighty-six miles! The Indians were greatly dissatisfied, for they had no idea that such a distance could be accomplished, and it included some of their finest lands. The walkers *ran* a considerable portion of the way. They ate as they travelled, and never stopped from sunrise until sunset. One old Indian said, bitterly, when complaining of the *cheat*, "No sit down to smoke—no shoot a squirrel, but lun, lun, lun, all day long." The Indians, supposing the walk would end not far from the Wind-gap, had collected there in great numbers; but, to their astonishment, the walkers reached that point on the evening of the first day.

The turnpike road through the Wind-gap, and across the valleys and mountains, to Wilkes-Barre, was made by Sullivan for the passage of his troops in 1779, when marching to join General Clinton on the Tioga. Before that time the pass was little more than a rough Indian war-path, and its obscurity made the hurried flight of the people from Wyoming over the solitary region more perplexing and dreadful than it would be now.

Windom, WILLIAM, financier; born in Belmont county, O., May 10, 1827; studied law, settled in Minnesota, and was in Congress in 1859–69, and the United States Senate in 1870–81. He attained prominence on the Republican side, especially in financial matters. Three times, in 1880, 1884, and 1888, his name was presented to Republican national conventions for the Presidential nomination. Senator Windom was a member of President Garfield's cabinet, holding the treasury portfolio. Retiring after Garfield's death, he was chosen again to the Senate, where he remained until 1883. With the return of the Republicans under President Harrison in 1889, Windom was called to take his former cabinet office. He was in the middle of his term when, on Jan. 29, 1891, he was an invited guest at the annual banquet of the board of trade in New York; at this dinner the Secretary dropped dead just after finishing an impressive address on his favorite topic—finance.

Winds, WILLIAM, military officer; born in Southhold, Long Island, N. Y., in 1727; settled in Morris county, N. J., early in life; was captain of a New Jersey company recruited in 1758 to take part in the conquest of Canada; member of the New Jersey Assembly in 1772 and 1775; appointed lieutenant-colonel of the 1st New Jersey Battalion Nov. 7, 1775; promoted colonel March 7, 1776; and later was commissioned brigadier-general. In 1775 he served at Perth Amboy, N. J., and there held the last royal governor of New Jersey, William Franklin, a prisoner. He died in Rockaway, N. J., Oct. 12, 1789.

Windsor, a town in Hartford county, Conn., on the Connecticut and Farmington rivers, containing several villages, and principally engaged in agriculture and the manufacture of paper, spool silk, cotton warps, and machinery. The town was settled under the leadership of Roger Ludlow, a distinguished jurist and the reputed author of the constitution adopted by the towns of Windsor, Hartford, and Wethersfield, the union of which constituted the commonwealth of Connecticut, in 1639 (see CONNECTICUT). The settlement dates from 1637, the place receiving its name in February of that year. The first Congregational church here was erected in 1644. Windsor contains the home of Chief-Justice Oliver Ellsworth, of the United States Supreme Court, and many valuable colonial relics, and was the burial-place of Capt. John Mason, who conquered the Pequod Indians; Chief-Justice Ellsworth, the Rev. Ephraim Hewit, Gov.

Roger Wolcott, and other colonial and Revolutionary celebrities.

Wine, AMERICAN. California is the most important factor in viticulture in the United States, and grape culture is one of the most wide-spread industries in the State, 342,519 acres being devoted to this class, of which 160,573 acres are in wine grapes, 128,217 acres in raisin grapes, and 53,729 acres in table grapes. All varieties of European grapes are included, besides many local developments therefrom. The annual value of the entire grape product aggregates over $25,000,000. An official report covering 1910 showed an output of 27,500,000 gallons of dry wines, 18,000,000 gallons of sweet wines, and 2,500,000 gallons of brandy. During that year 9,866,539 gallons of wine, valued at $3,162,600, were exported to twenty-six different countries.

The first production of wine from native grapes in the United States was in Florida in 1665; but no important attempt to develop wine-making in the United States was made till 1828, when Nicholas Longworth, of Cincinnati, engaged in the business. The wine produced by him was a white wine made from the Catawba grape, and resembling Rhine wine. The industry was also soon after developed in Missouri. Hammondsport, N. Y., is the centre of a large wine-producing region, where large quantities of sparkling wine or champagne are produced. Since 1862 excellent wines have been made at Egg Harbor, Vineland, and Passaic, N. J., the best being a red wine, some of which resembles Bordeaux, others Burgundy. Several others of the Eastern States produce wine.

50,000,000 GALLONS OF WINE

Of our total vintage for 1911 California yielded four-fifths. The wine production of the United States in 1911 is estimated by the *American Wine Press*, in its issue for 1912, as follows:

	Gallons.
Southern States	300,000
New Jersey	250,000
New York	6,000,000
Ohio	3,000,000
Michigan	200,000
Missouri	750,000
California, dry wines	23,500,000
California, sweet wines	17,500,000
All other States	250,000
Total wine yield	51,750,000

Wines, ENOCH COBB, penologist; born in Hanover, N. J., Feb. 17, 1806; graduated at Middlebury College in 1827; taught school in St. Albans, Vt., Alexandria, Va., and Washington, D. C.; became a teacher on board the United States ship *Constellation* in 1829; and later taught in Princeton and Burlington, N. J., and Philadelphia, Pa.; was ordained in the Congregational Church in 1849, and held pastorates in Cornwall, Vt., and Easthampton, L. I., till 1854, when he was appointed professor of ancient languages in Washington College, Pa. He was made president of the University of St. Louis in 1859; was secretary of the New York Prison Association from 1862 till his death; and was actively engaged in prison reform. In 1871 he was sent to Europe by the United States government to make arrangements for the international penitentiary congress which met in London, England, July 4, 1872. It appointed an international commission, of which Dr. Wines was made chairman. He published many volumes on the transactions of this body and of prisons and reformatories in the United States; *Two Years and a Half in the American Navy*, etc. He died in Cambridge, Mass., Dec. 10, 1879.

Wines, FREDERICK HOWARD, statistician; born in Philadelphia, Pa., April 9, 1838; became a Presbyterian clergyman; chaplain in the Union army, 1862–64; secretary Illinois State board of charities commissioners, 1869–93 and 1897–99; assistant director, United States census, 1899–1902; statistical secretary Illinois State board of administration of public institutions from 1909; president National, 1883, and International, 1903, Conferences of Charities and Correction; author of *Defective, Dependent, and Delinquent Classes in the United States* (10th census); *Crime, Pauperism, and Benevolence in the United States* (11th census); *Punishment and Reformation; The Liquor Problem in its Legislative Aspects;* many pamphlets on charities, penology, etc.

Wing, SIMON, manufacturer; born Aug. 29, 1826; settled in Boston, Mass., in 1860; became a general book and job printer and a manufacturer of photographic goods; did much to make ferrotype photography popular; first introduced tintypes and the postage-stamp size of

photographs. In 1892 he was the candidate of the Socialist Labor party for President of the United States.

Wingate, GEORGE WOOD, lawyer; born in New York, July 1, 1840; received a public-school education; conducted the construction of elevated railroads in Brooklyn, and is vice-president of the Brooklyn Elevated Railroad Company. He served in the 22d New York Regiment during the Civil War; introduced rifle practice in the United States as a part of military instruction in the State national guards. He was first secretary, and then for twenty-five years was president of the National Rifle Association, and for several years was special instructor of military tactics in the public schools of New York. He is author of *Wingate's Manual for Rifle Practice; The Great Cholera Riots; On Horseback Through the Yellowstone,* etc.

Wingfield, EDWARD MARIA, administrator; born in England about 1570; first president of the colony of Virginia in 1607; deposed in 1608. He wrote *A Discourse on Virginia.*

Winnebago Indians, a tribe of the Dakota family, whose name denotes "men from the salt water." They seem to have been foremost in the eastward migration of the Dakotas, and were forced back to Green Bay, where they were numerous and powerful and the terror of the neighboring Algonquians. Early in the seventeenth century there was a general confederation of the tribes in the Northwest against the Winnebagoes. They were driven to a place where they lost 500 of their number, and afterwards the Illinois reduced them to a very small tribe; but they remained very turbulent. Until the conquest of Canada they were with the French, and after that with the English, until beaten by Wayne, when they became a party to the treaty at Greenville, in 1795. With Tecumseh they gave help to the British in the War of 1812. Until the conclusion of the Black Hawk War, in 1832, there were continual collisions and irritations between the Winnebagoes and white people on the frontiers. They ceded their lands in Wisconsin and became lawless and roving bands. They had reservations (from which they were removed from time to time) on the headwaters of the Mississippi, and they had begun to plant and show signs of civilization when the Sioux War broke out, in 1862, and the people of Minnesota demanded their removal. They were disarmed in 1863, and driven into the wilderness on the Mississippi River, Dakota Territory. Subsequently a part of the tribe was assigned a reservation on the Omaha lands in northeast Nebraska, and another part to a reservation in Wisconsin. In 1910 there were 1,063 in Nebraska and 1,270 in Wisconsin.

Winslow, EDWARD, colonial governor; born in Droitwich, England, Oct. 18, 1595; became a Puritan in his youth; married

EDWARD WINSLOW.

the daughter of a Dissenter; came to America from Holland, in the *Mayflower,* in 1620. Winslow offered himself to Massasoit, the Indian sachem, as a hostage, at the first conference between him and the English, and won his respect. He made two voyages to England (1623–24) as agent for the colony, and in 1633 he succeeded Bradford as governor. He went to England again in 1649, after the death of Charles I., and there proposed, and aided in forming, the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in New England. Cromwell so appreciated his worth that he offered him such distinctions and emoluments in England that he never returned to America. While in command of an expedition against the Spaniards he was seized with fever and died on shipboard, May 8, 1655.

Winslow, JOHN, military officer; born in Plymouth, Massachusetts, May 27, 1702;

was the principal actor, under superior orders, in the tragedy of the expulsion of the Acadians from Nova Scotia in 1755. It is said that, twenty years afterwards, nearly every person of Winslow's lineage was a refugee on the soil from which the Acadians were driven. In 1756 Winslow was commander-in-chief at Fort William Henry, Lake George, and a major-general in the expedition against Canada in 1758–59. In 1762 he was appointed presiding judge of the court of common pleas of Plymouth, Mass., and councillor and member of the Massachusetts legislature during the Stamp Act excitement. He was an original founder of the town of Winslow, Me., in 1766. He died in Hingham, Mass., April 17, 1774. See ACADIA.

Winslow, JOHN ANCRUM, naval officer; born in Wilmington, N. C., Nov. 19, 1811; was appointed midshipman in 1827; became lieutenant in 1839, distinguished

JOHN ANCRUM WINSLOW.

himself in the war with Mexico, and was attached to the Mississippi flotilla in 1861. In 1863 he was placed in command of the *Kearsarge,* and on June 19, 1864, he sank the ALABAMA (*q. v.*) off Cherbourg, France. For this action he was promoted commodore. He was in command of the Gulf Squadron in 1866–67, of the Pacific fleet in 1871, and, at the time of his death, of the navy-yard at Portsmouth. He died in Boston, Sept. 29, 1873.

Winslow, JOSEPH, military officer; born in Virginia in 1746; joined a company of rangers in 1760; was twice wounded by Indians in battle; and in 1766 removed to North Carolina. When the Revolution began he was appointed a major, and had frequent encounters with Tories. In the battle at King's Mountain he commanded the right wing, and was voted a sword by North Carolina for his gallantry. He made a treaty with the Cherokees in 1777, served in the legislature of North Carolina, and was member of Congress from 1793 to 1795, and again in 1803. He died near Germantown, N. C., in 1814.

Winslow, JOSIAH, colonial governor; born in Plymouth, Mass., in 1629; son of Edward Winslow; was in command of a military company in Marshfield, in 1652, and was general-in-chief of the forces of the united colonies of New England, raised against King Philip, in 1675. He was one of the commissioners of the united colonies for thirteen years (1658–71). He became the first native governor of Plymouth colony in 1673, and filled that office at the time of his death in Marshfield, Mass., Dec. 18, 1680. See WILLIAM'S WAR, KING.

Winsor, JUSTIN, historian; born in Boston, Mass., Jan. 2, 1831; educated at Cambridge, Paris, and Heidelberg; was superintendent of the Boston Public Library in 1868–77; librarian of Harvard from 1877 till his death, in Cambridge, Mass., Oct. 22, 1897. He contributed to the *Knickerbocker Magazine* and other periodicals; and wrote *Reader's Handy-book of the American Revolution; Memorial History of Boston; Narrative and Critical History of America; The Mississippi Basin; The Struggle in America Between England and France,* etc.

Winston, JOHN ANTHONY, legislator; born in Madison county, Ala., Sept. 4, 1812; educated at La Grange College, Ala., and Nashville University, Tenn.; became a cotton planter and commission merchant; was elected to the State House of Representatives in 1840 and 1842, and to the Senate in 1845, and served as president of the latter for many years; raised two companies of troops for the Mexican War in 1846, and was made colonel of the 1st Alabama Volunteers, but the regiment was not accepted. He was elected governor of Alabama in 1853 and 1855; served in the Confederate army as colonel of the 8th Alabama Regiment;

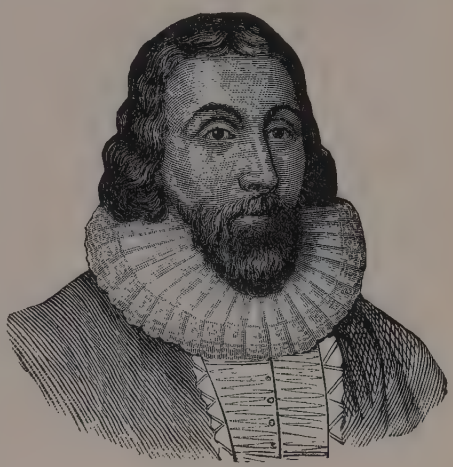
commanded a brigade in the Peninsular campaign. He was a delegate to the State constitutional convention of 1866; refused to take a seat in the United States Senate; declined to be a candidate for governor, and lived in retirement. He died in Mobile, Ala., Dec. 21, 1871.

Winston-Salem, N. C. The Salem part was settled by Moravians in 1766; was the scene of several thrilling events in the Indian and Revolutionary wars; and was occupied by National and Confederate armies during the Civil War. It is the seat of a noted female seminary and college founded by Moravians in 1802. Pop. (1910), Winston, 17,167; Salem, 5,533.

Winter, WILLIAM, author; born in Gloucester, Mass., July 15, 1836; graduated at Harvard Law School and admitted to the bar in 1857. He contributed to papers and magazines from 1852–1912, and wrote *Life and Art of Edwin Booth; Life and Art of Joseph Jefferson; Henry Irving; John McCullough; John Gilbert; Ada Rehan; Life and Art of Richard Mansfield,* etc.

Winthrop, FITZ-JOHN, military officer; born in Ipswich, Mass., March 19, 1639; son of John Winthrop, 2d; went to England; held a commission under Richard Cromwell; and, returning to Connecticut, became a representative in the Congress of the Confederacy in 1671. He served as major in King Philip's War, and in 1686 was one of the council of Governor Andros. In 1690 he was major-general of the army operating against Canada. He was agent of the colony in England; and so wisely did he conduct affairs that the legislature of Massachusetts gave him $2,000. He was governor of Connecticut from 1698 until his death. He died in Boston, Mass., Nov. 27, 1707.

Winthrop, JOHN, colonial governor; born near Groton, Suffolk, England, Jan. 22, 1588; arrived at Salem in the summer of 1630, with 900 emigrants, in several ships. On his arrival, the government, administered by Endicott, was transferred to him. He was a just magistrate, and managed the affairs of the colony with vigor and discretion until succeeded by Thomas Dudley, in 1634. Winthrop and the whole company who came with him intended to join the settlers at Charlestown, but, it being sickly there, they went over to the peninsula of Shawmut, where there was a spring of pure and wholesome water, and seated themselves, and called the place Trimountain, on account of three hills. It was afterwards called Boston, and became the capital of New



JOHN WINTHROP.

England. When Sir Henry Vane came, and was elected governor, Winthrop was made his deputy, and it was at that time that the controversy with Anne Hutchinson occurred (see HUTCHINSON, ANNE). Winthrop again became governor in 1637, and from that time until his death he held the office of chief magistrate a greater part of the time. Governor Winthrop kept a journal of the transactions of the colony, which has been published—the first two books in 1790, and the third (the manuscript of which was found in 1816, in the New England Library, kept in the tower of the Old South Meeting-house, in Boston) was published with the first two, in complete form, with notes by James Savage, in 1825–26. He died in Boston, Mass., March 26, 1649.

Winthrop, JOHN, colonist; born in Groton, Suffolk, England, Feb. 12, 1606; son of the preceding; educated at Trinity College, Dublin; entered the public service early; was in the expedition for the relief of the Huguenots of La Rochelle, in 1627; and the next year was attached to the English embassy at Constantinople. In 1631 he came to America, but soon re-

turned to England. He was sent back in 1635, as governor of the Connecticut colony, by Lords Say and Seal and Brook, built a fort at the mouth of the Connecticut River, and there began a village named Say-Brook. In 1645 he founded New London, on the Thames. Under the constitution of the colony he was succeeded by John Hayne, and was elected governor in 1657, and again in 1659. He held the office until his death. After the accession of Charles II. (1660) Winthrop went to England to obtain a charter from the King. The colonists had been sturdy republicans during the interregnum, and the King did not feel well disposed towards them, and at first he refused to grant them a charter. Finally, when Winthrop presented his Majesty with a ring which Charles I. had given to his father, the heart of the monarch was touched, and he granted a charter, May 1 (N. S.), 1662. While attending the Congress of the New England Confederacy in Boston as delegate from Connecticut, Winthrop was seized with an illness that caused his death, April 5, 1676.

WINTHROP, ROBERT CHARLES

Winthrop, Robert Charles, statesman; born in Boston, Mass., May 12, 1809, a descendant in the sixth generation from Gov. John Winthrop; graduated at Harvard in 1828; studied law with Daniel Webster; was a member of the Massachusetts legislature, 1836–40, and

ROBERT CHARLES WINTHROP

of Congress, 1841–42, and 1843–50. From 1847 to 1849 he was speaker of the House. He was president of the electoral college of Massachusetts in 1848, and in 1850 was appointed United States Senator to fill the unexpired term of Daniel Webster. He was president of the Massachusetts Historical Society for thirty years, and was highly esteemed as an orator. His public addresses include those at the laying of the corner-stone of the Washington Monument (1848); on the completion of the monument (1885); on the 250th anniversary of the landing of the Pilgrims (1870); on the Centennial (July 4, 1876), and on the 100th anniversary of the surrender of Cornwallis (1881). Several of his orations were delivered on the invitation of Congress. He died in Boston, Mass., Nov. 16, 1894.

Centennial Oration.—The following is Mr. Winthrop's oration on the centennial of the Declaration of Independence, delivered in Boston, Mass., July 4, 1876:

Our fathers were no propagandists of republican institutions in the abstract. Their own adoption of a republican form was, at the moment, almost as much a matter of chance as of choice, of necessity as of preference. The thirteen colonies had, happily, been too long accustomed to manage their own affairs, and were too widely jealous of each other, also, to admit for an instant any idea of centralization; and without centralization a monarchy, or any other form of arbitrary government, was out of the question. Union was then, as it is now, the only safety for liberty; but it could only be a constitutional union, a limited and restricted union, founded on compromises and mutual concessions; a union recognizing a large measure of State rights—resting not only on the division of powers among legislative and executive departments, but resting

also on the distribution of powers between the States and the nation, both deriving their original authority from the people, and exercising that authority for the people. This was the system contemplated by the declaration of 1776. This was the system approximated to by the confederation of 1778–81. This was the system finally consummated by the Constitution of 1789. And under this system our great example of self-government has been held up before the nations, fulfilling, so far as it has fulfilled it, that lofty mission which is recognized to-day as "liberty enlightening the world."

Let me not speak of that example in any vainglorious spirit. Let me not seem to arrogate for my country anything of superior wisdom or virtue. Who will pretend that we have always made the most of our independence, or the best of our liberty? Who will maintain that we have always exhibited the brightest side of our institutions, or always intrusted their administration to the wisest or worthiest men? Who will deny that we have sometimes taught the world what to avoid, as well as what to imitate; and that the cause of freedom and reform has sometimes been discouraged and put back by our shortcomings, or by our excesses? Our light has been at best but a revolving light; warning by its darker intervals or its sombre shades, as well as cheering by its flashes of brilliancy, or by the clear lustre of its steadier shining. Yet, in spite of all its imperfections and irregularities, to no other earthly light have so many eyes been turned; from no other earthly illumination have so many hearts drawn hope and courage. It has breasted the tides of sectional and of party strife. It has stood the shock of foreign and of civil war. It will still hold on, erect and unextinguished, defying, "the returning wave" of demoralization and corruption. Millions of young hearts in all quarters of our land are awakening at this moment to the responsibility which rests peculiarly upon them, for rendering its radiance purer and brighter and more constant. Millions of young hearts are resolving at this hour that it shall not be their fault if it do not stand for a century to come, as it has stood for a century past, a beacon of liberty to mankind. Their little flags of hope and promise are floating to-day from every cottage window along the road-side. With those young hearts it is safe.

Meantime we may all rejoice and take courage, as we remember of how great a drawback and obstruction our example has been disembarrassed and relieved within a few years past. Certainly we cannot forget this day, in looking back over the century which is gone, how long that example was overshadowed, in the eyes of our men, by the existence of African slavery in so considerable a portion of our country. Never, never, however—it may be safely said—was there a more tremendous, a more dreadful problem submitted to a nation for solution than that which this institution involved for the United States of America. Nor were we alone responsible for its existence. I do not speak of it in the way of apology for ourselves. Still less would I refer to it in the way of crimination or reproach towards others, abroad or at home. But the well-known paragraph on this subject in the original draught of the declaration is quite too notable a reminiscence of the little desk before me to be forgotten on such an occasion as this. That omitted clause—which, as Mr. Jefferson tells us, "was struck out in compliance to South Carolina and Georgia," not without "tenderness," too, as he adds, to some "Northern brethren, who, though they had very few slaves themselves, had been pretty considerable carriers of them to others"—contained the direct allegation that the King had "prostituted his negative for suppressing every legislative attempt to prohibit or restrain this execrable commerce." That memorable clause, omitted for prudential reasons only, has passed into history, and its truth can never be disputed. It recalls to us, and recalls to the world, the historical fact—which we certainly have a special right to remember this day—that not only had African slavery found its portentous and pernicious way into our colonies in their earliest settlement, but that it had been fixed and fastened upon some of them by royal vetoes, prohibiting the passage of laws to restrain its further introduction. It had thus not only entwined and entangled itself about the

very roots of our choicest harvests—until slavery and cotton at last seemed as inseparable as the tares and wheat of the sacred parable—but it had engrafted itself upon the very fabric of our government. We all know, the world knows, that our independence could not have been achieved, our Union could not have been maintained, our Constitution could not have been established, without the adoption of those compromises which recognized its continued existence, and left it to the responsibility of the States of which it was the grievous inheritance. And from that day forward the method of dealing with it, of disposing of it, and of extinguishing it became more and more a problem full of terrible perplexity, and seemingly incapable of human solution.

Oh, that it could have been solved at last by some process less deplorable and dreadful than civil war! How unspeakably glorious it would have been for us this day could the great emancipation have been concerted, arranged, and ultimately effected without violence or bloodshed, as a simple and sublime act of philanthropy and justice!

But it was not in the divine economy that so huge an original wrong should be righted by an easy process. The decree seemed to have gone forth from the very registries of heaven:

"Cuncta prius tentanda, sed immedicabile vulnus
Ense recidendum est."

The immedicable wound must be cut away by the sword! Again and again as that terrible war went on we might almost hear voices crying out, in the words of the old prophet: "O thou sword of the Lord, how long will it be ere thou be quiet? Put up thyself into thy scabbard; rest, and be still." But the answering voice seemed not less audible: "How can it be quiet, seeing the Lord hath given it a charge?"

And the war went on—bravely fought on both sides, as we all know—until, as one of its necessities, slavery was abolished. It fell at last under that right of war to abolish it which the late John Quincy Adams had been the first to announce in the way of warning, more than twenty years before, in my own hearing, on the floor of Congress, while I was your representative. I remember well the burst of indignation and derision with which that warning was received. No prediction of Cassandra was ever more scorned than his, and he did not live to witness its verification. But whoever else may have been more immediately and personally instrumental in the final result—the brave soldiers who fought the battles, or the gallant generals who led them—the devoted philanthropists or the ardent statesmen, who, in season and out of season, labored for it—the martyr-President who proclaimed it—the true story of emancipation can never be fairly and fully told without the "old man eloquent," who died beneath the roof of the Capitol nearly thirty years ago, being recognized as one of the leading figures of the narrative.

But, thanks be to God, who overrules everything for good, that great event, the grandest of our American age, great enough alone and by itself to give a name and a character to any age—has been accomplished, and, by His blessing, we present our country to the world this day without a slave, white or black, upon its soil! Thanks be to God, not only that our beloved Union has been saved, but that it has been made both easier to save and better worth saving hereafter by the final solution of a problem before which all human wisdom had stood aghast and confounded for so many generations. Thanks be to God, and to Him be all the praise and the glory, we can read the great words of the Declaration, on this centennial anniversary, without reservation or evasion: "We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, and that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuits of happiness." The legend on that new colossal pharos at Long Island may now indeed be "Liberty enlightening the world!"

We come, then, to-day, fellow-citizens, with hearts full of gratitude to God and man, to pass down our country, and its institutions — not only wholly without scars and blemishes upon their front—not without shadows on the past or clouds of the future—but freed forever from at

least one great stain, and firmly rooted in the love and loyalty of a united people—to the generations which are to succeed us.

And what shall we say to those succeeding generations, as we commit the sacred trust to their keeping and guardianship?

If I could hope, without presumption, that any humble counsels of mind, on this hallowed anniversary, could be remembered beyond the hour of their utterance, and reach the ears of my countrymen in future days; if I could borrow "the masterly pen" of Jefferson, and produce words which should partake of the immortality of those which he wrote on this little desk; if I could command the matchless tongue of John Adams, when he poured out appeals and arguments which moved men from their seats, and settled the destinies of a nation; if I could catch but a single spark of those electric fires which Franklin wrestled from the skies, and flash down a phrase, a word, a thought, along the magic chords, which stretch across the ocean of the future — what could I, what would I say?

I could not omit, certainly, to reiterate the solemn obligations which rest on every citizen of this republic to cherish and enforce the great principles of our colonial and Revolutionary fathers — the principles of liberty and law, one and inseparable—the principles of the Constitution and the Union.

I could not omit to urge on every man to remember that self-government politically can be successful only if it be accompanied by self-government personally; that there must be government somewhere; and that, if the people are indeed to be sovereigns, they must exercise their sovereignty over themselves individually, as well as over themselves in the aggregate, regulating their own lives, resisting their own temptations, subduing their own passions, and voluntarily imposing upon themselves some measure of that restraint and discipline which, under other systems, is supplied from the armories of arbitrary power—the discipline of virtue in the place of the discipline of slavery.

I could not omit to caution them against the corrupting influences of intemperance, extravagance, and luxury. I could not omit to warn them against political intrigue, as well as against personal licentiousness; and to implore them to regard principle and character, rather than mere party allegiance, in the choice of men to rule over them.

I could not omit to call upon them to foster and further the cause of universal education; to give a liberal support to our schools and colleges; to promote the advancement of science and of art, in all their multiplied divisions and relations; and to encourage and sustain all those noble institutions of charity, which, in our own land, above all others, have given the crowning grace and glory to modern civilization.

I could not refrain from pressing upon them a just and generous consideration for the interests and the rights of their fellow-men everywhere, and an earnest effort to promote peace and good-will among the nations of the earth.

I could not refrain from reminding them of the shame, the unspeakable shame and ignominy, which would attach to those who should show themselves unable to uphold the glorious fabric of self-government which had been formed for them at such cost by their fathers: "*Videte, vidcte, ne, ut illis pulcherrimum fuit tantam vobis imperii gloriam relinquere, sic solis turpissimum sit, illud quod accepistis, tueri et conservare non posse!*"

And surely, most surely, I could not fail to invoke them to imitate and emulate the example of virtue and purity and patriotism, which the great founders of our colonies and of our nations had so abundantly left them.

But could I stop there? Could I hold out to them, as the results of a long life of observation and experience, nothing but the principles and examples of great men?

Who and what are great men? "Woe to the country," said Metternich to our own Ticknor, forty years ago, "whose condition and institutions no longer produce great men to manage its affairs." The wily Austrian applied his remark to England at that day; but his woe—if it be woe—would have a wider range in our time, and leave hardly any land unreached. Certainly we hear it nowadays, at every turn, that never before has there been so striking a disproportion between sup-

ply and demand, as at this moment, the world over, in the commodity of great men.

But who, and what, are great men? "And now stand forth," says an eminent Swiss historian, who had completed a survey of the whole history of mankind, at the very moment when, as he says, "a blaze of freedom is just bursting forth beyond the ocean"—"And now stand forth, ye gigantic forms, shades of the first chieftains, and sons of God, who glimmer among the rocky halls and mountain fortresses of the ancient world; and you conquerors of the world from Babylon and from Macedonia; ye dynasties of Cæsars, of Huns, Arabs, Moguls, and Tartars; ye commanders of the faithful on the Tigris, and commanders of the faithful on the Tiber; you hoary counsellors of kings, and peers of sovereigns; warriors on the car of triumph, covered with scars and crowned with laurels, ye long row of consuls and dictators, famed for your lofty minds, your unshaken constancy, your ungovernable spirit;—stand forth, and let us survey for a while your assembly, like a council of the gods! what were ye? The first among mortals? Seldom can you claim that title! The best of men? Still fewer of you have deserved such praise! Were ye the compellers, the instigators of the human race, the prime movers of all their works? Rather let us say that you were the instruments, that you were the wheels, by whose means the Invisible Being has conducted the incomprehensible fabric of universal government across the ocean of time!"

Instruments and wheels of the Invisible Governor of the universe! This is indeed all which the greatest men ever have been, or ever can be. No flatteries of courtiers, no adulations of the multitude, no audacity of self-reliance, no intoxications of success, no evolutions or developments of science can make more or other of them. This is "the sea-mark of their utmost sail," the goal of their farthest run, the very round and top of their highest soaring.

Oh, if there could be, to-day, a deeper and more pervading impression of this great truth throughout our land, and a more prevailing conformity of our thoughts and words and acts to the lessons which it involves—if we could lift ourselves to a loftier sense of our relations to the Invisible—if in surveying our past history we could catch larger and more exalted views of our destinies and our responsibilities—if we could realize that the want of good men may be a heavier woe to a land than any want of what the world calls great men—our centennial year would not only be signalized by splendid ceremonials and magnificent commemorations and gorgeous expositions, but it would go far towards fulfilling something of the grandeur of that "acceptable year" which was announced by higher than human lips, and would be the auspicious promise and pledge of the glorious second century of independence and freedom for our country!

For, if that second century of self-government is to go on safely to its close, or is to go on safely and prosperously at all, there must be some renewal of that old spirit of subordination and obedience to divine, as well as human laws, which has been our security in the past. There must be faith in something higher and better than ourselves. There must be a reverent acknowledgment of an unseen, but all-seeing, all-controlling Ruler of the universe. His word, His way, His house, His worship, must be sacred to our children, as they have been to their fathers; and His blessing must never fail to be invoked upon our land and upon our liberties. The patriot voice which cried from the balcony of yonder old State-house when the Declaration had been originally proclaimed, "Stability and perpetuity to American independence!" did not fail to add "God save our American States!" I would prolong that ancestral prayer. And the last phrase to pass my lips at this hour, and to take its chance for remembrance or oblivion in years to come, as the conclusion of this centennial oration, and as the sum and summing up of all I can say to the present or the future, shall be: there is, there can be, no independence of God; in Him, as a nation no less than in Him, as individuals, "we live, and move, and have our being! God save our American States!"

Winthrop, THEODORE, military officer; born in New Haven, Conn., Sept. 22, 1828; graduated at Yale College in 1848, and on

his return from Europe, in 1851, became tutor to a son of William H. Aspinwall, of New York, whose counting-house he afterwards entered. In the employ of the Pacific Steamship Company, he resided in Panama two years, and visited California, Oregon, and Vancouver's Island. He was one of the sufferers in the expedition of Lieutenant Strain to explore the Isthmus of Darien, returning in impaired health in 1854. On the fall of Fort Sumter he joined the 7th N. Y. Regiment; went with it to Annapolis; became military secretary to General Butler at Fortress Monroe, with the rank of major, and was killed in battle at Great Bethel, Va., June 10, 1861.

Wireless Telegraphy. On June 2, 1896, Guglielmo Marconi, a young Italian inventor then residing at Bayswater, England, filed in the British patent office a provisional specification "for improvements in transmitting electrical impulses and signals and in apparatus therefor." At that time the transmission of messages without wires was wholly unknown, in so far as its practice and utilization were concerned. In 1905 King Edward VII. and President Roosevelt exchanged congratulations by wireless by means of the Marconi system established between Clifton, Ireland, and Glace Bay, Nova Scotia, and in 1907 this system was put into successful commercial operation. Between these close dates of inception and perfection many American scientists entered this field of invention, and when Marconi undertook to sell the right to use his system to the United States government, it developed that our army and navy officers had quietly perfected wireless apparatus that was held to be superior to the most advanced Marconi methods. Since then the system belonging to the United States government has been undergoing constant improvement, and, though remarkable results have been achieved in the matters of clearness and distance of transmission, new and more astonishing records are of frequent occurrence.

On Jan. 23, 1909, the White Star liner *Republic*, bound from New York to the Mediterranean, was rammed in the fog off the Nantucket light-ship by the steamer *Florida* and abandoned in a sinking condition. All her passengers and crew were rescued, through the heroism of John R. Binns, the wireless operator on the *Republic*, who sent forth the extreme emergency signal "C. Q. D.," and remained at his post till abundant assistance arrived. This incident was considered the crowning triumph of wireless telegraphy up to that time, and led almost immediately to the voluntary equipment of countless vessels with wireless apparatus. Furthermore, it led to a compulsory act of Congress, approved June 24, 1910, which provided that "from and after July 1, 1911, every ocean-going steamer, foreign as well as American, carrying fifty or more persons, including passengers and crew, must be equipped with an efficient apparatus for radio-communication (wireless telegraphy), in charge of a person skilled in the use of such apparatus, before it is permitted to leave any port of the United States."

On Jan. 1, 1915, the United States government had practically completed the circle of naval wireless stations, begun in 1911, that gird the continental part of the country and also extend to its outlying possessions, the last station erected being at the naval hospital at Chelsea, Mass. The Chelsea plant gave the system forty-four powerful stations, all in touch with the National capital by means of the great central plant at Arlington (Fort Myer), Va.

The stations on the Atlantic and Gulf coasts are at Portland, Me.; Portsmouth, N. H.; Boston; Cape Cod; Newport, R. I.; Fire Island, N. Y.; New York Navy-Yard; Annapolis, Md.; Washington, D. C. (Arlington); Norfolk, Va.; Beaufort, N. C.; Charleston, S. C.; St. Augustine, Fla.; Jupiter, Fla.; Key West, Fla.; Pensacola, Fla.; and New Orleans. Other Atlantic stations, but not on the mainland, are at Guantanamo, Cuba; San Juan, Porto Rico; and Colon, Panama Canal.

The Pacific chain begins at the Pacific terminus of the Panama Canal, and comprises plants at San Diego, Cal.; Point Angel, Cal.; Farallons, Cal.; San Francisco; Eureka, Cal.; Cape Blanco, Ore.; Tatoosh, Wash.; North Head, Wash.; Puget Sound, Wash.; and, in Alaska, Cordova, Sitka, Dutch Harbor, Kodiak, Unalga, St. George, and St. Paul.

Westward of San Francisco, there are stations at Honolulu, Guam, and Cavité and Olongapa, Philippine Islands. An additional station, the only one not on American territory, is maintained in connection with the American Legation in Peking, China.

Thirty-three governments were represented in a wireless conference in Berlin in 1906, called to frame an agreement for free intercommunication between all wireless systems. The representatives of the United States at the beginning of the conference announced their position to be for an international agreement providing for an unrestricted exchange of messages between ship and ship and ship and shore, regardless of the system used. Excepting Great Britain and Italy, which were bound by contracts with the Marconi Company, all the maritime powers ultimately accepted the view of the United States.

Wirt, WILLIAM, jurist; born in Bladensburg, Md., Nov. 8, 1772; was left an orphan when he was eight years of age, with a small patrimony, and was reared and educated by an uncle. He began the practice of law at Culpeper Court-house, Va. In 1795 he married a daughter of Dr. George Gilmer, and settled near Charlottesville, Va., where he contracted dissipated habits, from the toils of which, it is said, he was released by hearing a sermon preached by Rev. James Waddell. In 1799 he was chosen clerk of the Virginia House of Delegates, and in 1802 was appointed chancellor of the eastern district of Virginia. Very soon afterwards he resigned the office, and settled in Norfolk in the practice of his profession. He had lately written a series of letters under the title of *The British Spy*, which were published in the Richmond *Argus*, and gave him a literary reputation. Published in collected form, they have passed through many editions. The next year he published a series of essays in the Richmond *Enquirer* entitled *The Rainbow*. Wirt settled in Richmond in 1806, and became distinguished the following year as one of the foremost lawyers in the country in the trial of Aaron Burr for treason. In the same year he was elected to the Virginia House of Delegates, and was a prominent advocate of the chief measures of President Jefferson's administration. His chief literary production—*Life of Patrick Henry*—was first published in 1817, at which time he was United States attorney for the district of Virginia. The same year President Monroe appointed him (Dec. 15) Attorney-General of the United States, which office he held continually until 1829, when he removed to Baltimore. In 1832 he was the candidate of the ANTI-MASONIC PARTY (*q.v.*) for the Presidency of the United States. He died in Washington, D. C., Feb. 18, 1834.

Wirz, HENRY, military officer; commander of Andersonville Prison. See article on CONFEDERATE STATES.

The strait of the Confederacy in 1864 was desperate: it was pressed on all sides, while Grant and Sherman, each with a hundred thousand men and more, were advancing through their territory. Every man upon whom the Confederacy could lay hands was needed at the front—every pound of food was needed for the fighters. Means of transit were at all times limited: railroads far into the interior were wrecked by Federal raiders, locomotives and machinery destroyed, while the blockade prevented their replacement. The troops that could be spared for prison-guards were in number the very minimum, and in quality the poorest; the officers to command them were those who could be spared from before the enemy—the incapables, therefore. These struggled often inefficiently against the difficulties of the situation which always grew worse: money became worthless; for all work only impressed and reluctant labor could be had. New thousands of prisoners poured in as the summer advanced, largely from before Richmond—some part of them, it is said, being "bounty-jumpers," who preferred to surrender rather than fight.

This being the situation, horrors accumulated. The Confederacy, though so distracted, was not insensible to the misery: the truth was sounded abroad by many, in particular in a report made to the government by Colonel D. T. Chandler, which kept back nothing. Various schemes to help were advocated: since Grant refused to exchange, many favored a liberation of the more feeble prisoners,

and sending them north on parole. The men directly in charge at the stockade, and who at the North were believed to be especially responsible for the enormities, were General John H. Winder and Captain Henry Wirz. The latter was hanged after the war, for his supposed crimes; and Winder, who died in 1865, no doubt would also have been executed. Yet possibly they were more unfortunate than criminal. They were inferior men set to cope with fearful conditions.

WISCONSIN

Wisconsin (name derived from that of a group of Indian tribes living on the banks of the river of the same name, including the Sak, Foxes, and others, variously spelled *Ouesconsins*, *Ouisconsins*, and *Siskonche*, and meaning, according to some authorities, "wild rushing river," and referring, according to others, to the holes in the banks of a stream in which birds nested), a State in the East North Central Division of the North American Union; bounded on the n. and n. e. by

STATE SEAL OF WISCONSIN.

Lake Superior and the upper peninsula of Michigan, e. by Lake Michigan, s. by Illinois, and w. by Iowa and Minnesota; area, 56,066 square miles, of which 810 are water surface; extreme breadth, e. to w., 290 miles; extreme length, n. to s., 300 miles; number of counties, 70; capital, Madison; popular name, "the Badger State"; State motto, "Forward"; organized as a Territory, July 3, 1836; admitted into the Union as the thirtieth State, May 29, 1848. Pop. (1910), 2,333,860.

General Statistics.—Wisconsin is especially noted for its great lumber interests, and ranks high among the States in its agricultural and manufacturing industries. There are over 176,500 farms, containing 11,882,000 improved acres, and representing in lands, buildings, and implements a value of over $1,250,341,000, an increase in the value of lands and buildings of 75 per cent. in ten years. Ordinary farm crops have an annual value exceeding $131,185,000, of which over $73,000,000 is represented by the various cereals and nearly $41,000,000 by forage. Domestic animals, poultry, and bees have a value of $158,500,000, an increase of over 64 per cent. in ten years, horses ($68,585,500), cattle ($67,400,000), and swine ($13,621,000) leading.

Manufacturing is promoted by an abundance of water-power and the cheapness of raw materials. This industry is represented by over 9,720 factory-system establishments, employing $605,966,000 capital and 182,724 wage-earners, paying $119,743,000 for salaries and wages and $346,383,000 for materials, and yielding products valued at $590,466,000. These figures show an increase in ten years, in establishments, from 7,841; capital, from $286,060,566; wage-earners, from 137,525; salaries and wages, from $66,188,738; cost of materials, from $185,695,393; and value of products, from $326,752,878. The principal outputs are lumber in various forms, furniture, butter, cheese, and condensed milk, foundry and machine-shop work, malt liquors (Milwaukee beer is famous the world over), flour and grist, packed meat, iron and steel, and agricultural machinery. The internal revenue collections on taxable manufactures exceed $8,688,700 in a single year, chiefly on beer, spirits, and tobacco.

General business interests are served by 129 national banks, having $16,260,000 capital and resources of $175,537,564; 477

State banks, with $11,900,150 capital and $135,840,250 resources; eleven loan and trust companies, with $2,210,000 capital and $11,589,224 resources; three mutual savings banks, with resources of $1,510,667; and nine stock savings banks, with $780,000 capital and $5,744,082 resources. Milwaukee ranks eighteenth among the clearing-house cities of the country, with exchanges exceeding $648,210,000 in a single year.

Religious interests are promoted by 4,902 organizations, having 4,562 church edifices, 1,000,903 communicants or members, 278,691 Sunday-school scholars, and church property valued at $27,277,837, the strongest denominations numerically being the Roman Catholic, Lutheran, Methodist, Congregational, Presbyterian, Baptist, German Evangelical Synod, Protestant Episcopal, and Evangelical. The Roman Catholic Church has an archbishop at Milwaukee and bishops at Green Bay, La Crosse, and Superior, and the Protestant Episcopal, bishops at Milwaukee and Fond du Lac.

The school age is 4–20; enrolment in the public schools, 466,554; average daily attendance, 322,766; value of public-school property, $10,676,214; permanent school fund, $3,845,529; total revenue, $11,324,876; total expenditure, $10,676,214; estimated number of pupils in private and parochial schools, 43,260. For higher education there are eleven colleges and universities, eight State and seven county normal schools, four schools of theology, three of medicine, and two each of law, dentistry, and pharmacy, nine manual and industrial training schools, and 273 public high schools. There are also four reform schools; State schools for the blind and deaf at Janesville and Delavan respectively; and a home for the feeble-minded at Chippewa Falls. The principal colleges and universities are the University of Wisconsin, at Madison; Beloit College, Beloit; Marquette University (R. C.), Milwaukee; Carroll College (Pres.), Waukesha; Lawrence College (non-sect.), Appleton; Northwestern University (Luth.), Watertown; and the Milwaukee-Downer College for Women at Milwaukee.

Government.—After the period of discovery and exploration, the territory embraced within the limits of the present State was regarded as a part of Canada, and was formally occupied in the name of King Louis XIV. In 1763 the Treaty of Paris gave the territory, then claimed by France, to Great Britain, and in 1783 another Treaty of Paris gave it to the United States. It was included in the Territory of Indiana, organized in 1800, and in that of Illinois, organized in 1809; was attached to the Territory of Michigan on the creation of the State of Illinois in 1818; and was organized as a separate Territory in 1836.

The first State constitution was ratified in 1848; an amendment extending suffrage to the colored race was declared rejected in 1849 and again in 1865. Capital punishment was abolished in 1853; the Fifteenth Amendment to the federal Constitution was ratified in 1869; the Supreme Court rejected the application of Miss Lavinia Goodell for admission to the bar, as "a calling inconsistent with the duties of the sex," in 1876; the legislature passed an act enabling women to practise law in 1877; a compulsory-education law was adopted in 1879; and women were given the right of suffrage in school elections in 1885. Acts providing for more secret ballots and for local option were passed in 1889, and an act granting unrestricted suffrage to women, to take effect in 1913 if approved by popular vote, was a feature of the legislation of 1911.

The executive authority is vested in a governor (annual salary, $5,000), lieutenant-governor, secretary of state, treasurer, attorney-general, superintendent of education, and commissioners of insurance and public lands—official terms, two years. The legislature consists of a senate of thirty-three members and a house of representatives of one hundred members—terms of senators, four years; of representatives, two years; salary of each, $500 per annum; sessions, biennial; limit, none. The chief judicial authority is a Supreme Court, comprising a chief-justice and six associate justices. In 1910 the State had a bonded debt of $2,251,000, all held in various trust funds; assessed valuations (1909), $2,602,549,798; amount raised by taxation for all State purposes, $3,607,939.

TERRITORIAL GOVERNORS.

	assumes office	
Henry Dodge	"	1836
James D. Doty	"	1842
Nathaniel P. Tallmadge	"	1844
Henry Dodge	"	1845

STATE GOVERNORS (term two years).

	assumes office	
Nelson Dewey	"	1848
Leonard J. Farwell	"	1852
William A. Barstow	"	1854
Coles Bashford	"	1856
Alexander W. Randall	"	1858
Louis P. Harvey	"	1862
Edward Salomon	"	1862
James T. Lewis	"	1864
Lucius Fairchild	"	1866
C. C. Washburn	"	1872
William R. Taylor	"	1874
Harrison Ludington	"	1876
William E. Smith	"	1878
Jeremiah M. Rusk	"	1882
William D. Hoard	"	1889
George W. Peck	"	1891
William H. Upham	"	1895
Edward Scofield	"	1897
Robert M. LaFollette	"	1901
J. O. Davidson	"	1907
F. C. McGovern	"	1911

Wisconsin ranked thirtieth in population among the States and Territories under the census of 1840; twenty-fourth in 1850; fifteenth in 1860 and 1870; sixteenth in 1880; fourteenth in 1890; and thirteenth in 1900 and 1910.

UNITED STATES SENATORS.

Name.	No. of Cong.	Term.
Henry Dodge	30th to 35th	1848 to 1857
Isaac P. Walker	30th " 34th	1848 " 1855
Charles Durkee	34th " 37th	1855 " 1861
James R. Doolittle	35th " 41st	1857 " 1869
Timothy O. Howe	37th " 46th	1861 " 1879
Matthew H. Carpenter	41st " 44th	1869 " 1875
Angus Cameron	44th " 46th	1875 " 1881
Matthew H. Carpenter	46th	1879 " 1881
Philetus Sawyer	46th to 53d	1881 " 1893
Angus Cameron	46th " 49th	1881 " 1885
John E. Spooner	49th " 52d	1885 " 1891
William F. Vilas	52d " 55th	1891 " 1897
John L. Mitchell	53d " 56th	1893 " 1899
John E. Spooner	55th " 60th	1897 " 1907
Joseph V. Quarles	56th " 58th	1899 " 1905
Robert M. La Follette	59th " ——	1905 " ——
Isaac Stephenson	61st " ——	1909 " ——

In the apportionment of representation in Congress, Wisconsin was given two members under the census of 1840; three in 1850, six in 1860; eight in 1870; nine in 1880; ten in 1890; and eleven each in 1900 and 1910.

History.—The territory embraced within the limits of the present State was first explored by Jean Nicollet, who in 1634 was sent by Frontenac, then governor of New France, to open trade relations with the Indians occupying the shores of the lake now known as Winnebago. Nicollet parted with the Jesuit priests who started with him at the Isle des Allumetts, and with seven Hurons continued his journey till he reached a prosperous village of Algonquians on the site of the present city of Sault Ste. Marie. After resting awhile here he advanced to the Falls of St. Anthony, then entered the Straits of Mackinaw, descended to Lake Michigan, passed around Point Detour, and went ashore at Bay de Noquet, the north arm of Green Bay. From this point he went to the mouth of the Menominee River, where he held a council with the Indians, and then slowly made his way to the mouth of the Fox River, and landed at a Winnebago settlement. Soon afterwards he navigated Lake Winnebago until he reached the mouth of the Fox River, where the city of Oshkosh now stands, and then spent some time in exploring the interior and in visiting Indian tribes, including some in the present State of Illinois. He returned to Quebec in 1635.

Twenty-three years afterwards, two traders, Radisson and Groseilliers, undertook an exploration of the same region, spending the winter on the islands at the entrance of Green Bay, ascending the upper Fox River in the spring and making friends with the Indians. Radisson was taken by the aborigines in their canoes up and down many of the rivers now within Wisconsin, and entered the Mississippi in the summer of 1659. In 1660 the two traders returned to Canada, and in the following year started on a second expedition to Wisconsin by way of Lake Superior, reached Chequamegon Bay, and built a fort near the site of Ashland. About 1665, Père Claude J. Allouez built a bark chapel and established the first Jesuit mission near this fort. The next explorers were Louis Joliet and James Marquette, who in 1673 navigated a part of the Fox and Illinois rivers while on their way to and from the exploration of the Mississippi River.

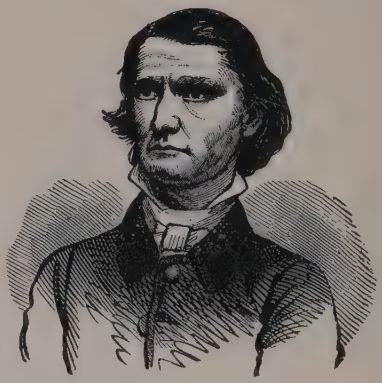
Although ceded to the United States

by Great Britain in 1783, and brought under the Territorial form of government in 1787, the region was not wholly free from British domination till about 1815, and it was not till after the close of the BLACK HAWK WAR (*q. v.*), or about 1833, that it was relieved of Indian troubles and became tranquil. Excluding the original colonies, Wisconsin is one of the richest of the States in historical literature. Its chronology from 1634 is remarkably full, and a long list of historical writers has given the State a record of substantial merit, well-sustained development, and consistent civic pride. The State is also remarkable for the heterogeneous character of its inhabitants, over three-fourths of all its people being of foreign birth or parentage, Germans predominating, followed by Scandinavians, Danes, Dutch, Canadians, and others. During the Civil War the State furnished 96,118 men for the Union armies.

In 1907 the legislature passed a stringent insurance bill, which led twenty-three foreign life-insurance companies to withdraw from the State in 1910; also a child-labor, public-utilities, and maximum two-cent passenger railroad rate bills, the latter restricting the granting of free passes. In the same year Circuit Court Judge Belden, at Kenosha, restrained labor unions with a membership of 1,000 from picketing, and enjoined them from interfering at boarding-houses and boycotting places of business selling goods to non-unionists. In 1911 the legislature authorized the State to furnish life insurance and annuities, issuing policies ranging from $500 to $3,000, at a cost not to exceed $2 annually on each $1,000.

Wisconsin, UNIVERSITY OF, a co-educational non-sectarian institution in Madison, Wis.; organized in 1849 and reorganized in 1867. It comprises a college of letters and science, college of mechanics and engineering, college of agriculture, college of law, school of pharmacy, school of economics, political science, and history, and a school of music. The university has grounds and buildings and farm valued at over $4,060,000; endowment funds, $626,000; volumes in the library, 152,000; scientific apparatus, etc., $616,000; average number of faculty, 395; average student attendance, 4,500; graduates, over 8,100.

Wise, HENRY ALEXANDER, diplomatist; born in Drummondtown, Va., Dec. 3, 1806; was admitted to the bar at Winchester, Va., in 1828; settled in Nashville, Tenn., but soon returned to Accomack, where he was elected to Congress in 1833, and remained a member until 1843, when he was appointed minister to Brazil. He was a zealous advocate of the annexation of Texas. He was a member of the State constitutional convention in 1850, and was governor of Virginia from 1856 to 1860. He approved the pro-slavery constitution (Lecompton) of Kansas, and in 1859 published a treatise on Territorial government, containing the doctrine of the right of Congress to protect slavery. The last important act of his administration was ordering the execution of JOHN BROWN (*q. v.*), for the raid on Harper's Ferry. In the Virginia convention, early in 1861, he advocated a peaceful settlement of difficulties with the national government; but after the ordinance of secession had been passed he took up arms against the government, became a Confederate brigadier-general, was an unsuccessful leader in western Virginia, and commanded at Roanoke Island, but was sick at the time of its capture. He died in Richmond, Va., Sept. 12, 1876. Among his publications is *Seven Decades of the Union: Memoir of John Tyler.*



HENRY ALEXANDER WISE.

Speech Against Know-nothingism.—During the KNOW-NOTHING AGITATION (*q. v.*), before the party was organized,

Mr. Wise delivered the following speech in Congress, Sept. 18, 1852:

The laws of the United States—federal and State laws—declare and defend the liberties of our people. They are free in every sense—free in the sense of Magna Charta and beyond Magna Charta; free by the surpassing franchise of *American* charters, which makes them sovereign and their wills the sources of constitutions and laws.

In this country, at this time, does any man think anything? Would he think aloud? Would he speak anything? Would he write anything? His mind is free; his person is safe; his property is secure; his house is his castle; the spirit of the laws is his body-guard and his house-guard; the fate of one is the fate of all measured by the same common rule of right; his voice is heard and felt in the general suffrage of freemen; his trial is in open court, confronted by witnesses and accusers; his prison-house has no secrets, and he has the judgment of his peers; and there is naught to make him afraid, so long as he respects the rights of his equals in the eye of the law. Would he propagate truth? Truth is free to combat error. Would he propagate error? Error itself may stalk abroad and do her mischief, and make night itself grow darker, provided truth is left free to follow, however slowly, with her torches to light up the wreck! Why, then, should any portion of the people desire to retire in secret, and by secret means to propagate a political thought, or word, or deed, by stealth? Why band together, exclusive of others, to do something which all may not know of, towards some political end? If it be good, why not make the good known? Why not think it, speak it, write it, act it out openly and aloud? Or is it evil, which loveth darkness rather than light? When there is no necessity to justify a secret association for political ends, what else can justify it? A caucus may sit in secret to consult on the general policy of a great public party. That may be necessary or convenient; but that even is reprehensible if carried too far. But here is proposed a great primary, national organization, in its inception—What? Nobody knows. To do what? Nobody knows. How organized? Nobody knows. Governed by whom? Nobody knows. How bound? By what rites? By what test oaths? With what limitations and restraints? Nobody, nobody knows! All we know is that persons of foreign birth and of Catholic faith are proscribed; and so are all others who don't proscribe them at the polls. This is certainly against the spirit of Magna Charta. . . .

A Prussian born subject came to this country. He complied with our naturalization laws in all respects of notice of intention, residence, oath of allegiance, and proof of good moral character. He remained continuously in the United States the full period of five years. When he had fully filled the measure of his probation and was consummately a naturalized citizen of the United States, he then, and not until then, returned to Prussia to visit an aged father. He was immediately, on his return, seized and forced into the Landwehr, or militia system of Prussia, under the maxim: "Once a citizen, always a citizen!" There he is forced to do service to the King of Prussia at this very hour. He applies for protection to the United States. Would the Know-nothings interpose in his behalf or not? Look at the principles involved. We, by our laws, encouraged him to come to our country, and here he was allowed to become naturalized, and to that end required to renounce and abjure all allegiance and fidelity to the King of Prussia, and to swear allegiance and fidelity to the United States. The King of Prussia now claims no legal forfeiture from him—he punishes him for no crime—he claims of him no legal debt—he claims alone that very allegiance and fidelity which we required the man to abjure and renounce. Not only so, but he hinders the man from returning to the United States, and from discharging the allegiance and fidelity we required him to swear to the United States. The King of Prussia says he should do him service for seven years, for this was what he was born to perform; his obligations were due to him first, and his laws were first binding him. The United States say—true, he was born under your laws, but he had a right to expatriate himself; he owed allegiance first to you, but he had a right to forswear it

and to swear allegiance to us; your laws first applied, but this is a case of political obligation, not of legal obligation; it is not for any crime or debt you claim to bind him, but it is for allegiance; and the claim you set up to his services on the ground of his political obligation, his allegiance to you, which we allow him to abjure and renounce, is inconsistent with his political obligation, his allegiance, which we required him to swear to the United States; he has sworn fidelity to us, and we have, by our laws, pledged protection to him.

Such is the issue. Now, with which will the Know-nothings take sides? With the King of Prussia against our naturalized citizen and against America, or with America and our naturalized citizen? Mark, now, Know-nothingism is opposed to all foreign influence—against American institutions. The King of Prussia is a pretty potent foreign influence—he was one of the holy alliance of crowned heads. Will they take part with him, and not protect the citizen? Then they will aid a foreign influence against our laws! Will they take sides with our naturalized citizen? If so, then upon what grounds? Now, they must have a good cause of interposition to justify us against all the received dogmas of European despotism.

Don't they see, can't they perceive, that they have no other grounds than those I have urged? He is our citizen, nationalized, owing us allegiance and we owing him protection. And if we owe him protection abroad, because of his sworn allegiance to us as a naturalized citizen, what then can deprive him of his privileges at home among us when he returns? If he be a citizen at all, he must be allowed the privileges of citizenship, or he will not be the equal of his fellow-citizens. And must not Know-nothingism strike at the very equality of citizenship, or allow him to enjoy all its lawful privileges? If Catholics and naturalized citizens are to be citizens and yet to be proscribed from office, they must be rated as an inferior class—an excluded class of citizens. Will it be said that the law will not make this distinction? Then are we to understand that Know-nothings would not make them equal by law? If not by law, how can they pretend to make them unequal, by their secret order, without law and against law? For them, by secret combination, to make them unequal, to impose a burden or restriction upon their privileges which the law does not, is to set themselves up above the law, and to supersede by private and secret authority, intangible and irresponsible, the rule of public, political right. Indeed, is this not the very essence of the "higher law" doctrine? It cannot be said to be legitimate public sentiment and the action of its authority. Public sentiment, proper, is a concurrence of the common mind in some conclusion, conviction, opinion, taste, or action in respect to persons or things subject to its public notice. It will and it must control the minds and actions of men, by public and conventional opinion. Count Molé said that in France it was stronger than statutes. It is so here. That it is which should decide at the polls of a republic. But here is a secret sentiment, which may be so organized as to contradict the public sentiment. Candidate A may be a native and a Protestant, and may concur with the community, if it be a Know-nothing community, on every other subject except that of proscribing Catholics and naturalized citizens; and candidate B may concur with the community on the subject of this proscription alone, and upon no other subject; and yet the Know-nothings might elect B by their secret sentiment against the public sentiment. Thus it attacks not only American doctrines of expatriation, allegiance, and protection, but the equality of citizenship, and the authority of public sentiment. In the affair of Koszta, how did our blood rush to his rescue? Did the Know-nothing side with him and Mr. Marcy, or with Hulseman and Austria? If with Koszta, why? Let them ask themselves for the *rationale*, and see if it can in reason abide with their orders. There is no middle ground in respect to naturalization. We must either have naturalization laws and let foreigners become citizens, on equal terms of capacities and privileges, or we must exclude them altogether. If we abolish naturalization laws, we return to the European dogma: "Once a citizen, always a citizen." If we let foreigners be naturalized and don't extend to them equality of privileges, we set up classes

and distinctions of persons wholly opposed to republicanism. We will, as Rome did, have citizens who may be scourged. The three alternatives are presented: Our present policy, liberal, and just, and tolerant, and equal; or the European policy of holding the noses of native-born slaves to the grindstone of tyranny all their lives; or odious distinctions of citizenship tending to social and political aristocracy. I am for the present laws of naturalization.

As to religion, the Constitution of the United States, art. vi., sec. 3, especially provides that no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States. The State of Virginia has, from her earliest history, passed the most liberal laws, not only towards naturalization, but towards foreigners. But I have said enough to show the spirit of American laws and the true sense of American maxims.

Know-nothingism is against the spirit of Reformation and of Protestantism.

What was there to reform?

Let the most bigoted Protestant enumerate what he defines to have been the abominations of the Church of Rome. What would he say were the worst. The secrets of Jesuitism, of the *auto da fé*, of the monasteries and the nunneries. The private penalties of the Inquisition scavenger's daughter. Proscription, persecution, bigotry, intolerance, shutting up of the Book of the Word. And do Protestants now mean to out-Jesuit the Jesuits? Do they mean to strike and not be seen? To be felt and not to be heard? To put a shudder upon humanity by the masks of mutes? Will they wear the monkish cowls? Will they inflict penalties at the polls without reasoning together with their fellows at the hustings? Will they proscribe? Persecute? Will they bloat up themselves into that bigotry which would burn Nonconformists? Will they not tolerate freedom of conscience, but doom dissenters, in secret conclave, to a forfeiture of civil privileges for a religious difference? Will they not translate the scripture of their faith? Will they visit us with dark lanterns and execute us by signs, and test oaths, and in secrecy? Protestantism! forbid it!

If anything was ever open, fair, and free —if anything was ever blatant even—it was the Reformation. To quote from a mighty British pen: "It gave a mighty impulse and increased activity to thought and inquiry, agitated the inert mass of accumulated prejudices throughout Europe. The effect of the concussion was general, but the shock was greatest in this country" (England). "It toppled down the full grown intolerable abuses of centuries at a blow; heaved the ground from under the feet of bigoted faith and slavish obedience; and the roar and dashing of opinions, loosened from their accustomed hold, might be heard like the noise of an angry sea, and has never yet subsided. Germany first broke the spell of misbegotten fear, and gave the watchword; but England joined the shout, and echoed it back, with her island voice, from her thousand cliffs and craggy shores, in a longer and louder strain. With that cry the genius of Great Britain rose and threw down the gauntlet to the nations. There was a mighty fermentation: the waters were out; public opinion was in a state of projection; liberty was held out to all to think and speak the truth; men's brains were busy, their spirits stirring, their hearts full and their hands not idle. Their eyes were opened to expect the greatest things, and their ears burned with curiosity and zeal to know the truth, that the truth might make them free. The death-blow which had been struck at scarlet vice and bloated hypocrisy loosened tongues and made the talismans and love-tokens of popish superstitions with which she had beguiled her followers and committed abominations with the people, fall harmless from their necks."

The translation of the Bible was the chief engine in the great work. It threw open, by a secret spring, the rich treasures of religion and morality, which had then been locked up as in a shrine. It revealed the visions of the prophets, and conveyed the lessons of inspired teachers to the meanest of the people. It gave them a common interest in a common cause. Their hearts burned within them as they read. It gave a mind to the people by giving them common subjects of thought and feeling. It cemented their union of character and sentiment; it created endless di-

versity and collision of opinion. They found objects to employ their faculties, and a motive in the magnitude of the consequences attached to them, to exert the utmost eagerness in the pursuit of truth, and the most daring intrepidity in maintaining it. Religious controversy sharpens the understanding by the subtlety and remoteness of the topics it discusses, and braces the will by their infinite importance. We perceive in the history of this period a nervous, masculine intellect. No levity, no feebleness, no indifference; or, if there were, it is a relaxation from the intense activity which gives a tone to its general character. But there is a gravity approaching to piety, a seriousness of impression, a conscientious severity of argument, an habitual fervor of enthusiasm in their method of handling almost every subject. The debates of the schoolmen were sharp and subtle enough; but they wanted interest and grandeur, and were besides confined to a few. They did not affect the general mass of the community. But the Bible was thrown open to all ranks and conditions, "to own and read," with its wonderful table of contents, from Genesis to the Revelation. Every village in England would present the scene so well described in Burns's *Cotter's Saturday Night*. How unlike this agitation, this shock, this angry sea, this fermentation, this shout and its echoes, this impulse and activity, this concussion, this general effect, this blow, this earthquake, this roar and dashing, this longer and louder strain, this public opinion, this liberty to all to think and speak the truth, this stirring of spirits, this opening of eyes, this zeal to know—not nothing—but the truth, that the truth might make them free. How unlike to this is Know-nothingism, sitting and brooding in secret to proscribe Catholics and naturalized citizens! Protestantism protested against secrecy, it protested against shutting out the light of truth, it protested against proscription, bigotry, and intolerance. It loosened all tongues, and fought the owls and bats of night with the light of meridian day. The argument of Know-nothings is the argument of silence. The order ignores all knowledge. And its proscription can't arrest itself within the limit of excluding Catholics and naturalized citizens. It must proscribe natives and Protestants, both, who will not consent to unite in proscribing Catholics and naturalized citizens. Nor is that all; it must not only apply to birth and religion, it must necessarily extend itself to the business of life as well as to political preferments.

Wise, HENRY AUGUSTUS, naval officer; born in Brooklyn, N. Y., May 12, 1819; entered the navy as midshipman in 1834; served on the coast of Florida during the Seminole War, and on the Pacific coast as colonel during the Mexican War; was appointed assistant chief of the bureau of ordnance and hydrography with the rank of commander in 1862; and was promoted captain and chief of ordnance in 1866, resigning in 1868. He died in Naples, Italy, April 2, 1869. He was author of *Los Gringos, or an Interior View of Mexico and California, with Wanderings in Peru, Chile, and Polynesia*, etc.

Wise, JOHN, balloonist; born in Lancaster, Pa., Feb. 24, 1808; made his first ascension at Philadelphia, Pa., May 2, 1835, and ascended to an altitude of 13,000 feet, Aug. 11, 1838. On Aug. 15, 1851, he made an ascent from Zanesville, O., to experiment on the action of falling bodies, and discovered that they always fall spirally, turning on an axis as they descend. In 1859 he made a celebrated trip from St. Louis to Jefferson county, N. Y. On Sept. 28, 1879, with a number of companions, he ascended from St. Louis, Mo., in a balloon named the *Pathfinder*, which drifted in a northeasterly direction. The last that was ever seen of it was as it passed over Carlinville, Ill. Later the body of one of his companions was washed ashore on Lake Michigan. In all, Mr. Wise made over 230 ascensions. He was the author of *System of Aëronautics*.

Wise, JOHN SERGEANT, lawyer; born in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, where his father was United States minister, Dec. 27, 1846; graduated at the University of Virginia in 1867; became United States district attorney for the eastern district of Virginia in 1881; Republican Congressman-at-large from Virginia in 1883–85; and settled in New York City in 1889. He wrote *Recollections of Thirteen Presidents*, etc. He died May 12, 1913.

Wishoskan Indians, a family of Indians that occupied the shores of Humboldt Bay and the Eel, Elk, and Lower Mad rivers, in California, and comprised the Patawat, the Wiyot or Vicard, and the Wishosk tribes. In 1853 they numbered less than 1,500, and now the few remnants are practically lost by merging with other tribes.

Wisner, HENRY, patriot; born in Goshen, N. Y., about 1725; was an assistant justice of the court of common pleas in 1768; representative from Orange county in the New York General Assembly in 1759–69; member of the Continental Congress in 1774, and of the Congress which adopted the Declaration of Independence. He studied powder-making and erected three powder-mills in Orange county, from which a great part of the powder used in the Revolutionary War was supplied. He also aided the patriot cause at the time of the war by having spears and gun-flints made, by repairing the roads in Orange county; and by erecting works and mounting cannon on the Hudson River. He was one of the committee that framed the first constitution of New York in 1777; was State Senator in 1777–82; and a member of the State convention of 1788, which ratified the national Constitution. He died in Goshen, N. Y., in 1790.

Wissler, JACQUES, engraver; born in Strasburg, Germany, in 1803; was educated in Paris, France; came to the United States in 1849; and was employed by a lithographic firm. He was sent to Richmond, Va., by the firm before the Civil War broke out, and after the firing on Fort Sumter he was detained by the Confederates and employed to engrave the paper currency and bonds of the Confederacy. After the war he removed to Macon, Miss., and then to Camden, N. J., where he also engaged in engraving. He was also a portrait artist in crayon and oil. He died in Camden, N. J., Nov. 25, 1887.

Wistar, ISAAC JONES, military officer; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Nov. 14, 1827; entered the National army in 1861, and was commissioned brigadier-general of volunteers, Nov. 29, 1862, for services at Antietam. The sufferings of the Union prisoners at Richmond caused efforts to be made early in 1864 to release them. For this purpose Gen. B. F. Butler, in command of the Department of Virginia and North Carolina, planned and attempted a movement for the capture of Richmond by a sudden descent upon it. Arrangements were made for a diversion in favor of the movement. On Feb. 5, 1864, Butler sent a column of cavalry and infantry under General Wistar, 1,500 in number, who pushed rapidly northward from New Kent Court-house to the Chickahominy at Bottom's Bridge. General Kilpatrick was sent from the Army of the Potomac to cooperate with Wistar. With his cavalry and two divisions of Hancock's infantry, he crossed the Rapidan, and skirmished sharply with the Confederates to divert their attention from Richmond, and when the time for the execution of the raid had expired these troops recrossed the Rapidan, having sustained a loss of about 200 men. This raid was fruitless. The Confederates had been apprised by a traitor of the movement that Wistar intended to make. Wistar found the line of the Chickahominy too strongly guarded to pass it. General Wistar was president of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia in 1892–96; founded the Wistar Institute of Anatomy and Biology in Philadelphia; and was a widely esteemed authority on penology. He died in Claymount, Del., Sept. 18, 1905.

Wister, OWEN, author; born in Philadelphia, Pa., July 14, 1860; graduated at Harvard in 1882; admitted to the bar in 1889. Among his works are *Red Men and White; Lin McLean; Life of General Grant; The Seven Ages of Washington,* etc.

Witamo, squaw-sachem of the Pokanoket Indians, at Pocasset, near Mount Hope, was King Philip's mother-in-law; and she and her people supported him to the last and shared his disasters. Most of her people were killed or sold into slavery. She herself was drowned while crossing a river in her flight.

Witanagemot, the name of the great Anglo-Saxon council or parliament, constituting the highest court of judicature in the kingdom.

Witchcraft, NEW YORK. In 1665 Ralph Hill and his wife Mary were arrested for witchcraft and sorcery; they were tried by a jury, which included Jacob Leisler, afterwards governor, and acquit-

ted, the jury finding "nothing considerable against them." The event created but little excitement. In 1670, however, the case of Katherine Harrison led to complications between the judiciary and the people. She was a widow, who on being banished from Weathersfield, Conn., as a witch, settled in Westchester. As soon as her antecedents became known, a formal complaint was lodged against her, and she was taken before the court of assizes for examination. There nothing could be proven against her, and she was, accordingly, released from restraint. Her neighbors, however, were not satisfied with the decision of the court, and took such means of showing their resentment that she was compelled to seek a home elsewhere. This was probably the earliest case in the colonies of what is now known as boycotting. See WITCHCRAFT, SALEM.

Witchcraft, SALEM. The terrible delusion of belief in witchcraft accompanied the New England settlers, and they adopted English laws against it. For a long

▲ "WITCH."

time it was simply an undemonstrative belief, but at length it assumed an active feature in society in Massachusetts, as it was encouraged by some of the clergy, whose influence was almost omnipotent. Before 1688 four persons accused of witchcraft had suffered death in the vicinity of Boston. The first was Margaret Jones, of Charlestown, hanged in 1648. In 1656, Ann Hibbens, sister of Governor Bellingham, of Massachusetts, was accused of being a witch, tried by a jury, and found guilty. The magistrates refused to accept the verdict, and the case was carried to the General Court, where a majority of that body declared her guilty, and she was hanged. In 1688 a young girl in Danvers (a part of Salem) accused a maid-servant of theft. The servant's mother, a "wild Irishwoman" and a Roman Catholic, declared with vehemence that the charge was false, whereupon the accuser, out of revenge, accused the Irishwoman of having bewitched her. Some of the girl's family joined in the accusation and assisted her in her operations. They would alternately become deaf, dumb, and blind; bark like dogs and purr like cats; but none of them lost their appetite or needed sleep.

THE HOUSE OF A SUPPOSED WITCH.

Rev. Cotton Mather—a superstitious, credulous, and egotistical clergyman; a firm believer in witchcraft, and who believed America was originally peopled with "a crew of witches transported hither by the devil"—hastened to Danvers, with other clergymen as superstitious as himself, spending a whole day there in fasting and prayer, and so controlled the devil, he said, who would allow the poor victims to "read Quaker books, the Common Prayer, and popish books," but not the Bible. Mather and his associates were satisfied that the Irishwoman was a witch, and these holy men had the satisfaction of seeing the poor creature hanged. The excited Mather (who was ridiculed by unbelievers) preached a sermon against witchcraft, crying from the pulpit, with arms extended, "Witchcraft is the most nefarious high-treason against the Majesty on high. A witch is not to be endured in heaven or on earth." His sermon was printed and scattered broadcast among the people, and bore terrible fruit not long afterwards.

In 1692 an epidemic disease broke out in Danvers resembling epilepsy. The physicians could not control it, and, with Mather's sermon before them, they readily ascribed it to witchcraft. A niece and daughter of the parish clergyman were seized with convulsions and swelling of the throat, and all the symptoms produced by hysterics. Their strange actions frightened other young girls. A belief that evil spirits in the form of witches were permitted to afflict the people was soon widespread, and terror took possession of their minds, and held it for about six months. The "victims" pretended to see their tormentors with their "inner vision," and forthwith they would accuse some old or ill-favored woman of bewitching them. At length the "afflicted" and the accused became so numerous that no person was safe from suspicion and its consequences. During the prevalence of this terrible delusion, in the spring and summer of 1692, nineteen persons were hanged; one was

WITCHES' HILL.

killed by the horrible punishment of pressing to death; fifty-five were frightened or tortured into a confession of guilt; 150 were imprisoned, and fully 200 were named as worthy of arrest. Among those hanged was Rev. Mr. Burroughs, an exemplary clergyman, whose purity of character was conspicuous.

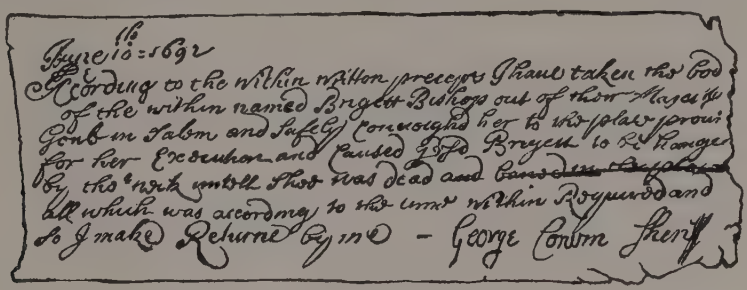
Malice, rapacity, and revenge often impelled persons to accuse others who were innocent; and when some statement of the accused would move the court and audience in favor of the prisoner, the accuser would solemnly declare that he saw the devil standing beside his victim whispering his touching words in his or her ear. And the absurd statement would be believed by the judges on the bench. Some, terrified, and with the hope of saving their lives or avoiding the horrors of imprisonment, would falsely accuse their friends and kinsfolk; while others, moved by the same instinct and hopes, would falsely confess themselves witches. Neither age, sex, nor condition was spared. Finally Sir William Phipps (the governor of Massachusetts, who had instituted the court for the trial of witches), his lieutenant, some near relatives of Cotton Mather, and learned and distinguished men who had promoted the delusion by acquiescing in the proceedings against accused persons, became objects of suspicion. The governor's wife, Lady Phipps, one of the purest and best of women was accused of being a witch. The sons of ex-Governor Bradstreet were compelled to flee to avoid the perils of false accusations; near relatives of Mather were imprisoned on similar charges.

When the magnates in Church and State found themselves in danger they suspected they had been acting unrighteously towards others, and cautiously expressed doubts of the policy of further proceedings against accused persons, for they remembered that they had caused a constable who had arrested many, and refused to arrest any more, to be hanged. A citizen of Andover who was accused, wiser and bolder than the magistrates and clergy, caused the arrest of his accuser on a charge of defamation of character, and laid his damages at £1,000. The public mind was in sympathy with him. The spell was instantly broken, and at a convention of clergymen they declared it was not inconsistent with Scripture to believe that the devil might "assume the shape of a good man, and that so he may have deceived the afflicted." Satan, as usual, was made the scape-goat for the sins and follies of magistrates, clergy, and people. Many of the accusers came forward and published solemn recantations or denials of the truth of their testimony, which had been given, they said, to save their lives.

The legislature of Massachusetts appointed a general fast and supplication,

"that God would pardon all the errors of his servants and people in a late tragedy raised among them by Satan and his instruments," and Judge Sewall, who had presided at many trials in Salem, stood up in his place in the church on that fast-day and implored the prayers of the people that the errors which he had committed "might not be visited by the judgments of an avenging God on his country, his family, and himself." The parish minister at Danvers in whose family the "affliction" started, and who was zealous in promoting the prosecutions, was compelled to leave the country. The credulous Mather still believed in witches, and wrote in support of the belief. He was thoroughly ridiculed by unbelievers, one of whom he dismissed by calling him "a coal from hell," and suing him for slander.

This episode in the history of Massachusetts is known as "Salem Witchcraft." It astonished the civilized world, and made an unfavorable impression on the surrounding Indians. The Jesuit missionaries took advantage of it to contrast their own mild religious system with the cruel exhibitions of that of the Puritans, whose ministers had been so prominent in the fearful tragedy.



FAC-SIMILE OF SHERIFF'S RETURN—EXECUTION OF A WITCH.

Witherspoon, JOHN, signer of the Declaration of Independence; born in Gifford, Scotland, Feb. 5, 1722; was a lineal descendant of John Knox. Educated at the University of Edinburgh, he was licensed to preach at twenty-one. When the Young Pretender landed in England young Witherspoon marched at the head of a corps of militia to join him. He was taken prisoner at Falkirk, and remained in Donne Castle until the battle of Gulloden. While settled at Paisley he was called (1767) to the presidency of the College of New Jersey, at Princeton, and was inaugurated in August, 1768. He had already written and published several works, and had acquired a fine reputation for scholarship. Under his administration the college flourished financially and otherwise. He was not only president, but was Professor of Divinity; also pastor of the Presbyterian church at Princeton. At the beginning of the Revolution the college was for a time broken up, when President Witherspoon assisted in the patriotic political movements. He also assisted in framing a State constitution for New Jersey, and went as a delegate to Congress in time to advocate and sign the Declaration of Independence. From 1776 to 1783 he was a punctual attendant of Congress, serving faithfully on important committees. He was a member of the secret committee and of the board of war. In Congress he opposed the repeated issues of paper money, and he wrote and published much on the topics of the time. In 1783 he went to England to collect funds for the college. He died near Princeton, N. J., Sept. 15, 1794.

Woedtyke, FREDERICK WILLIAM, BARON DE, military officer; born in Prussia about 1740; served for many years in the army of Frederick the Great, attaining the rank of major; came to the United States with letters of recommendation; settled in Philadelphia; and was made brigadier-general, March 16, 1776, and ordered to join the Northern army. He took part in the engagement at Crown Point; and

died near Lake George, N. Y., July 31, 1776.

Wolcott, EDWARD OLIVER, legislator; born in Longmeadow, Mass., March 26, 1848; studied at Yale College; was graduated at the Harvard Law School in 1871, practised in Denver, Col.; became interested in silver mining; and was United States Senator from Colorado in 1889–1901. He died in Monte Carlo, France, Feb. 28, 1905.

Wolcott, OLIVER, signer of the Declaration of Independence; born in Windsor, Conn., Nov. 26, 1726; graduated at Yale College in 1747; began studying medicine, but on being appointed sheriff of Litchfield county, in 1751, he abandoned it. He was in the council twelve years (1774–86); also a major-general of militia, and judge of the county court of common pleas and of probate. In 1775 Congress appointed him a commissioner of Indian affairs to secure the neutrality of the Six Nations, and he became a member of Congress in January, 1776. After the Declaration of Independence he returned to Connecticut, invested with the command of the militia intended for the defence of New York, and in November resumed his seat in Congress. Late in the summer of 1777 he joined the army under Gates with several hundred volunteers, and assisted in the capture of Burgoyne and his army. On the field of Saratoga he was made a brigadier-general in the Continental service. In 1786 he was chosen lieutenant-governor of Connecticut, and served in that capacity ten years, when he was elected governor. He died in Litchfield, Conn., Dec. 1, 1797.

Wolcott, OLIVER, financier; born in Litchfield, Conn., Jan. 11, 1760; a son of the preceding; graduated at Yale College in 1778, and was a volunteer to repel the British and Hessian marauders on the Connecticut coast towns in 1779. He became a volunteer aide to his father, and was afterwards a commissary officer. Admitted to the bar in 1781, he was employed in the financial affairs of Connecticut; and in 1784 was appointed a commissioner to settle its accounts with the United States. He was comptroller of national accounts in 1788–89, auditor of the United States treasury from 1789 to 1791, comptroller from 1791 to 1795, and Secretary of the Treasury from 1795 to 1800,

pointed United States cir-
when he w 02 he engaged in mer-
cuit judge. New York City, in
cantile busine until the breaking
which he cont 15, when, with his
out of the War extensive manufac-
son, he established t Wolcottville,
tory of textile goo of Connecticut
Conn. He was gover York City,
in 1818–27. He died i
June 1, 1833. governor;

Wolcott, ROGER, cold 679; was
born in Windsor, Conn., Ja e age of
apprenticed to a mechanic conomy
twelve years. By industry t fort-
he afterwards acquired a com nada
une. In the expedition agains nec-
in 1711 he was commissary of the en-
ticut forces, and had risen to ma e
eral in 1745, when he was second i e
mand at the capture of Louisburg.
was afterwards, successively, a legisl
county judge, chief-justice of the Sup
Court, and governor (1751–54). In 1
he published *Poetical Meditations*, and
left a long manuscript poem descripti
of the Pequod War, which is preserved
the collections of the Connecticut Histor
cal Society. He died in Windsor, Conn
May 17, 1767.

Wolfe, JAMES, military officer; born in Westerham, Kent, England, Jan. 2, 1727; distinguished himself in the army when he was only twenty years of age; and was quartermaster-general in the expedition against Rochefort in 1757. At the second capture of Louisburg by the English, in 1758, he acquired such fame that Pitt placed him at the head of the expedition against Quebec in 1759, with the rank of major-general, though only thirty-three years of age. On the evening of Sept. 12, Wolfe, who had just recovered from a serious attack of fever, embarked with his main army on the St. Lawrence, above Point Levi, and floated up the river with the flood-tide. He was preparing for an attack upon the French the next day. The evening was warm and starlit. Wolfe was in better spirits than usual, and at the evening mess, with a glass of wine in his hand, and by the light of a lantern, he sang the little campaign song beginning:

> "Why, soldiers, why
> Should we be melancholy, boys?
> Why, soldiers, why,
> Whose business 'tis to die?"

But the cloud of a gloomy presentiment soon overcast his spirits, and at past midnight, when the heavens were hung with black clouds, and the boats were floating silently back with the tide to the intended landing-place at the chosen ascent to the

GENERAL JAMES WOLFE.
(From a portrait by Schaak, in the National Portrait Gallery, London.)

Plains of Abraham, he repeated in a low tone, to the officers around him, this touching stanza of Gray's *Elegy in a Country Church-yard:*

"The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,
Await alike the inevitable hour—
The paths of glory lead but to the grave."

"Now, gentlemen," said Wolfe, "I would rather be the author of that poem than the possessor of the glory of beating the French to-morrow." He was killed the next day, and expired just as the shouts of victory of the English fell upon his almost unconscious ears. See MONTCALM.

"Woman Order," THE, an order issued by General Butler, in New Orleans, which produced wide-spread indignation throughout the Confederacy. Many of the women in New Orleans, it was alleged, openly insulted the National officers and soldiers in the street by words and actions, and would leave street-cars and church-pews whenever Union officers entered them. Finally, it was alleged, a woman spat in the face of two officers who were walking peaceably along the street. General Butler, to arrest the growing evil, issued an order (May 15, 1862) intended to work silently, peacefully, and effectually. It was as follows: "As the officers and soldiers of the United States have been subject to repeated insults from the women (calling themselves ladies) of New Orleans, in return for the most scrupulous non-interference and courtesy on our part, it is ordered that hereafter, when any female shall, by word, gesture, or movement, insult or show contempt for any officer or soldier of the United States, she shall be regarded and held liable to be treated as a woman of the town plying her avocation." The conduct was not afterwards repeated. The "order" was misrepresented in every form, but sensible women acknowledged its justice. General Butler received from the Confederates the name of "Butler the Beast." President Davis issued a proclamation (Dec. 26, 1862), in which he pronounced Butler to be "a felon, deserving of capital punishment," and ordered that he should not be "treated simply as a public enemy of the Confederate States of America, but as an outlaw and common enemy of mankind; and that, in the event of his capture, the officer in command of the capturing force do cause him to be im-

mediately executed by hanging." The same treatment was ordered for all commissioned officers serving under him. A "Georgian" offered $10,000 reward "for the infamous Butler"; and a prominent citizen of Charleston offered $10,000 reward "for the capture and delivery of the said Benjamin F. Butler, dead or alive, to any Confederate authority." See BUTLER, BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

Woman Suffrage. See SUFFRAGE, WOMAN.

Woman's Christian Temperance Union. The National Woman's Christian Temperance Union was organized in Cleveland, O., in 1874, and is the sober second thought of the great woman's crusade. It is now regularly organized in every State and every Territory of the Union. There are about 12,000 local unions, with a membership and following, including the children's societies, of about half a million. The Woman's Christian Temperance Union has forty distinct departments of work, presided over by as many women experts, in the national society, and in nearly every State. All the States in the republic have laws requiring the study of scientific temperance in the public schools, and all these laws were secured by the Woman's Christian Temperance Union, also the laws forbidding the sale of tobacco to minors. The first police matrons and most industrial homes for girls were secured through the efforts of this society, as were the refuges for erring women. Laws raising the age of consent and providing for better protection for women and girls have been enacted by many legislatures through the influence of the department for the promotion of social purity.

The World's Woman's Christian Temperance Union was founded through the influence of Frances E. Willard in 1883, and already has auxiliaries in more than fifty countries and provinces. The white ribbon is the badge of all the Woman's Christian Temperance Union members, and is now a familiar emblem in every civilized country.

The headquarters of the national organization are Rest Cottage, Evanston, Illinois.

Woman's Relief Corps, THE. The nucleus of this organization seems to have been formed about 1862, in connection with Bosworth Post, Grand Army of the Republic, of Portland, Me. This society was supplemented with others in different towns of the State, and finally grew into a State organization called the Woman's Relief Corps of Maine. The Bosworth society was also instrumental in organizing the Woman's Relief Corps of Massachusetts early in 1879, from which emanated the Union board. The last-named organization ultimately came to embrace the States of Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Connecticut, and at the convention at Denver, Col., in July, 1883, became the basis of the national association. Meanwhile, the work had been started in the West by the efforts of Mrs. Kate B. Sherwood, of Toledo, O. In 1877 this lady interested a number of her sex in the relief work of the Grand Army, and an entertainment was held which netted $1,500 to the relief fund of Forsyth Post. To continue this relief work Mrs. Sherwood urged the formation of a society, and, March 15, 1878, Forsyth Post Ladies' Society was organized. This auxiliary became the great missionary centre for the extension of woman's work in the Grand Army, and when the Denver convention met, 140 auxiliaries, in nine States, had been organized through the direct efforts of the president of the Toledo society, Mrs. Sherwood. At Denver, when the proposition of forming a national union of these auxiliary societies, East and West, was made, there was some difference of opinion as to the form of the work. The Grand Army delegates generally favored the plan of secret work, but the ladies of the auxiliaries had been carrying on their work without any service, signs, or secret forms. Mrs. Sherwood, as representative of the independent auxiliaries, proposed that these bodies should lay aside their plan of work and accept secret work, on condition of the eligibility of all loyal women. She then proposed that the form of work of the New England board should be adopted, as it conformed more nearly than that of any other to the work of the Grand Army. On this basis a national organization was perfected. The officers of the New England board were made officers of the national association. Mrs. Sherwood was made senior vice-president, and given

special jurisdiction in the West. The organization works under a ritual, with signs and passwords. Its badge is the Maltese cross. The membership in 1910 was 164,255.

Women, Advancement of. But few names of women appear in history. In most lands and times they have been without share in public life or in government, and have been deprived by law of equality in the acquisition and ownership of property. The sex has been from the first unrepresented in governing bodies. But the nineteenth century was marked by the steady increase of the intelligence and influence of women in all departments of activity which they had entered. Besides the colleges exclusively for women, a large majority of the leading colleges of the country are to-day on a co-educational basis. See Colleges for Women.

The following are some of the notable steps in woman's advancement in the United States.

Oberlin College, O., made no distinction as to sex from its foundation.....1833

Elizabeth Blackwell graduates from the medical department, Geneva College (the first M.D. in the United States)....1849

Her sister Emily graduates from the Cleveland Medical College.....1852

Edmona Lewis, half negro, half Indian, who becomes a famous sculptor, born in Ontario county, N. Y.....1855

First woman's hospital in the world founded at New York City by Dr. Marion Sims 1857

[In Philadelphia, 1862; in Boston, incorporated, 1863; in Chicago, 1865; in San Francisco, 1875; in Minneapolis, 1882.]

Arabella A. Mansfield, of Mount Pleasant, Ia., admitted to the practice of law June, 1869

Mrs. Myra Bradwell, of Chicago, applies for a license as an attorney-at-law 1869

[The Superior Court of Illinois refused, and the Supreme Court of the United States affirmed the decision. Women now admitted to the practice of law in Illinois by statute.]

American Woman's Suffrage Association formed by Lucy Stone Blackwell.1869

First convention held at Case Hall, Cleveland, O.....Nov. 24, 1869

[Unites with the National Woman's Suffrage Association, forming the National American Woman's Suffrage Association, 1890.]

Marilla M. Ricker, of Dover, N. H., attempts to vote; her vote refused for non-registration, although her name had been offered for registry.....March, 1870

Mrs. Ada H. Kepley, of Effingham, Ill., the first graduate from a law school, Union College of Law, Chicago June 30, 1870

Women admitted into the department of medicine and surgery in the University of Michigan at Ann Arbor.....1871

Illinois enacts that no person shall be precluded or debarred from any occupation, profession, or employment (except military) on account of sex..March, 1872

Susan B. Anthony votes at the Presidential election at Rochester, N. Y. Nov. 5, 1872

She is convicted of illegal voting and fined $100.....June 18, 1873

Woman's Christian Temperance Union, National Association, organized in Cleveland, O.....Nov. 17–18, 1874

Dr. Sarah H. Stevenson, of Chicago, admitted as a delegate (the first woman) to the American Medical Association at Philadelphia 1876

Mrs. Belva Lockwood admitted to practice before the Supreme Court of the United States, 1879; disability removed by an act of Congress approved Feb. 15, 1879

[Others since admitted: Laura De Force Gordon, of Stockton, Cal.; Ada M. Bittenbender, of Lincoln, Neb.; Carrie Barnham Kilgore, of Philadelphia; Clara M. Foltz, of San Diego, Cal.; Lelia Robinson-Sawtelle, of Boston; Emma M. Gillet, of Washington, D. C.]

Woman's Christian Temperance Union founded in the United States by Frances E. Willard.....1883

Mrs. Belva Lockwood accepts the nomination for President of the United States from the California Woman's Suffrage Convention.....September, 1884

A select committee of the United States Senate, Feb. 7, 1889, and the House judiciary committee, May 29, 1890, reported in favor of amending the Constitution to permit woman suffrage. Congress did not act upon these reports.

School suffrage for women exists in some form in most of the States where asked for.

Women vote on equal terms with men in Wyoming since 1870, under the State constitution ratified .....July 10, 1890

In adopting a State constitution in Washington, women were debarred from voting, although previously allowed.

In Kansas women have suffrage in municipal elections.

People vote in favor of woman suffrage in Colorado in the election of 1893

Montana women who are tax-payers have the same privileges as the men.

New York State convention to revise the constitution decided against woman suffrage by a vote of 97 to 58.....1894

Supreme Court of New Jersey decides against the right of women to vote at school elections 1894

Second triennial session of the National Council of Women of the United States begins at Washington .....Feb. 18, 1895

Prof. Annie Smith Peck (Smith College) begins her unequalled career as a mountain climber 1895

Mabel Boardman becomes chief of the executive committee of the American Red Cross 1905

Mrs. Russell Sage begins her great work of philanthropy by gifts of over $13,000,000 1907

Ella Flagg Young becomes superintendent of public schools at Chicago Aug. 1, 1909

Mrs. Ella Wilson is elected mayor of Hunnewell, Kan.....April, 1911

Ellen Fitz Pendleton, dean of Wellesley College, is elected president June 10, 1911

See SUFFRAGE, WOMAN.

Women, COLLEGES FOR. See COLLEGES FOR WOMEN.

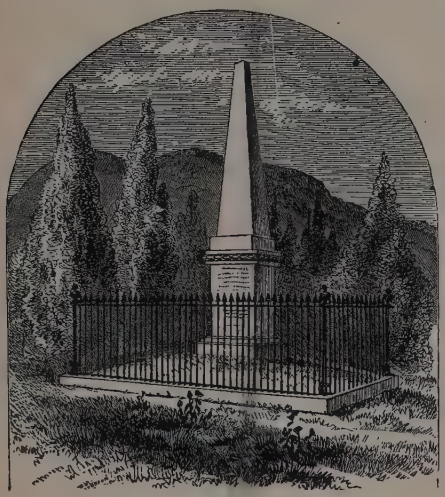
Women, NATIONAL COUNCIL OF, a central organization of women, to which all national societies organized for any purpose whatsoever come to hear what other national societies are doing on other lines. They counsel together as to any reform, or movement, in which all might co-operate. It is the purpose to send a commission to Cuba and Hawaii to inquire into the conditions of women. The council has a cabinet, and is fashioned on a plan similar to the Senate of the United States. It is self-supporting, with the aid of patrons. Twenty national societies are represented in the council; they aggregate a membership of 1,200,000 women, the largest representative organization in the world. It is affiliated with the International Council of Women.

Women's Clubs, GENERAL FEDERATION OF, an organization incorporated in 1892 and composed of over 2,700 women's clubs, having a membership of 200,000 women in the United States and foreign countries. The purpose of the federation is declared in its articles of incorporation to be "to bring into communication with one another the various women's clubs throughout the world, that they may compare methods of work and become mutually helpful. Constitutions of clubs applying for membership should show that no sectarianism or political test is required, and, while the distinctively humanitarian movements may be recognized, their chief purpose is not philanthropic or technical, but social, literary, artistic, or scientific culture." Meetings of the federation are held biennially. There are thirty State federations auxiliary to the general federation, and 595 single clubs in forty-one States. Several clubs from foreign countries are members of the federation—the Pioneer Club, of London; Woman's Club, of Bombay; and Educational Club, of Ceylon; clubs in Australia, etc.

Wood, BENJAMIN, journalist, editor of New York *Daily News;* member of Congress, 1861–65 and 1881–83. He wrote *Fort Lafayette, or Love and Secession.* He died in New York City, Feb. 21, 1900.

Wood, ELEAZAR DERBY, military officer; born in New York City, in 1783; was instructed at West Point, and was one of the earlier graduates in the corps of engineers. He was an engineer in Harrison's campaign in 1813, and was brevetted major for his gallantry in the defence of Fort Meigs, of which he had been chief in its construction. In the autumn of 1813 he was General Harrison's adjutant-general, and distinguished himself in the battle of the Thames. For his services in the battle of Lundy's Lane, or Niagara, he was brevetted lieutenant-colonel. He was distinguished at Fort Erie, where he lost his life in a sortie, Sept. 17, 1814. Colonel Wood was much beloved by General Brown,

who caused a handsome marble monument to be erected to his memory at West Point.



COLONEL WOOD'S MONUMENT AT WEST POINT.

Wood, FERNANDO, legislator; born in Philadelphia, Pa., June 14, 1812; removed to New York in 1820, and became a shipping merchant; was active in public matters; chairman of the Young Men's Political Organization in New York City in 1839; member of Congress in 1841–43; elected mayor of New York in 1854, 1856, 1859, and 1861; and was again a member of Congress in 1863–65 and 1867–77. He died in Washington, D. C., Feb. 14, 1881. See NEW YORK CITY.

The following is the text of Mayor Wood's message of Jan. 6, 1861, in favor of establishing New York City as an independent State.

To the Honorable the Common Council:

Gentlemen,—We are entering upon the public duties of the year under circumstances as unprecedented as they are gloomy and painful to contemplate. The great trading and producing interests of not only the city of New York, but of the entire country, are prostrated by a monetary crisis; and although similar calamities have before befallen us, it is the first time that they have emanated from causes having no other origin than that which may be traced to political disturbances. Truly may it now be said, "We are in the midst of a revolution *bloodless* AS YET." Whether the dreadful alternative implied as probable in the conclusion of this prophetic quotation may be averted, "no human ken can divine." It is quite certain that the severity of the storm is unexampled in our history, and if the disintegration of the federal government, with the consequent destruction of all the material interests of the people, shall not follow, it will be owing more to the interposition of Divine Providence than to the inherent preventive power of our institutions or the intervention of any other human agency.

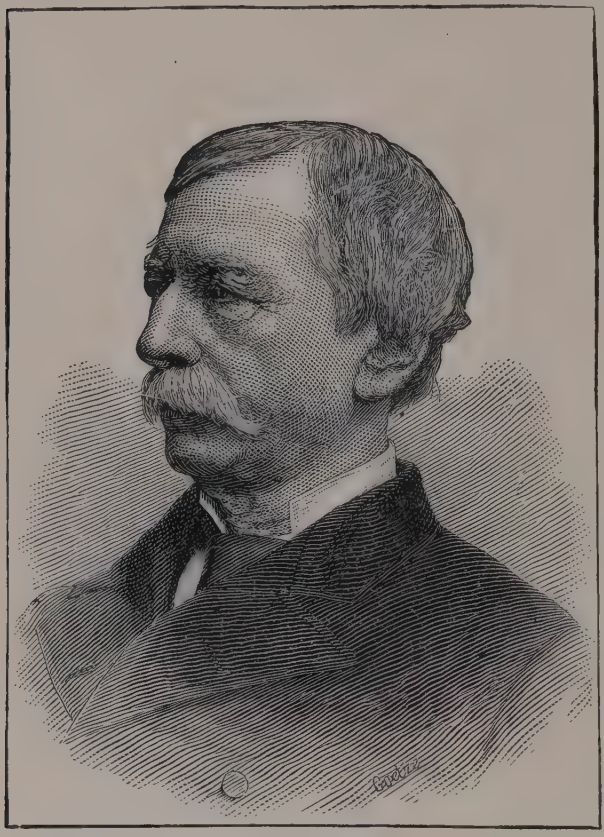
It would seem that a dissolution of the federal Union is inevitable. Having been formed originally on a basis of general and mutual protection, but separate local independence—each State reserving the entire and absolute control of its own domestic affairs, it is evidently impossible to keep them together longer than they deem themselves fairly treated by each other, or longer than the interests, honor, and fraternity of the people of the several States are satisfied. Being a government created by *opinion*, its continuance is dependent upon the continuance of the sentiment which formed it. It cannot be preserved by coercion or held together by force. A resort to this last dreadful alternative would of itself destroy not only the government, but the lives and property of the people.

If these forebodings shall be realized, and a separation of the States shall occur, momentous considerations will be presented to the corporate authorities of this city. We must provide for the new relations which will necessarily grow out of the new condition of public affairs.

It will not only be necessary for us to settle the relations which we shall hold to other cities and States, but to establish, if we can, new ones with a portion of our own State. Being the child of the Union, having drawn our sustenance from its bosom, and arisen to our present power and strength through the vigor of our mother—when deprived of her maternal advantages we must rely upon our own resources and assume a position predicated upon the new phase which public affairs will present, and upon the inherent

strength which our geographical, commercial, political, and financial pre-eminence imparts to us.

With our aggrieved brethren of the slave States we have friendly relations and a common sympathy. We have not participated in the warfare upon their constitutional rights or their domestic institutions. While other portions of our State have unfortunately been imbued with the fanatical spirit which actuates a portion of the people of New England, the city of New York has unfalteringly preserved the integrity of its principles in adherence to the compromises of the Constitution and the equal rights of the people of all the States. We have respected the local interests of every section, at no time oppressing, but all the while aiding in the development of the resources of the whole country. Our ships have penetrated to every clime, and so have New York capital, energy, and enterprise found their way to every State, and, indeed, to almost every county and town of the American Union. If we have derived sustenance from the Union, so have we in return disseminated blessings for the common benefit of all. Therefore New York has a right to expect, and should endeavor to preserve, a continuance of uninterrupted intercourse with every section.



FERNANDO WOOD.

It is, however, folly to disguise the fact that, judging from the past, New York may have more cause of apprehension from the aggressive legislation of our own State than from external dangers. We have already largely suffered from this cause. For the past five years our interests and corporate rights have been repeatedly trampled upon. Being an integral portion of the State, it has been assumed, and in effect tacitly admitted on our part by non-resistance, that all political and governmental power over us rested in the State legislature. Even the common right of taxing ourselves for our own government has been yielded, and we are not permitted to do so without this authority. . . .

Thus it will be seen that the political connection between the people of the city and the State has been used by the latter to our injury. The legislature, in which the present partisan majority has the power, has become the instrument by which we are plundered to enrich their speculators, lobby agents, and abolition politicians. Laws are passed through their malign influence by which,

under forms of legal enactment, our burdens have been increased, our substance eaten out, and our municipal liberties destroyed. Self-government, though guaranteed by the State constitution, and left to every other county and city, has been taken from us by this foreign power, whose dependents have been sent among us to destroy our liberties by subverting our political system.

How we shall rid ourselves of this odious and oppressive connection, it is not for me to determine. It is certain that a dissolution cannot be peacefully accomplished, except by the consent of the legislature itself. Whether this can be obtained or not, is, in my judgment, doubtful. Deriving so much advantage from its power over the city, it is not probable that a partisan majority will consent to a separation—and the resort to force by violence and revolution must not be thought of for an instant. We have been distinguished as an orderly and law-abiding people. Let us do nothing to forfeit this character, or to add to the present distracted condition of public affairs.

Much, no doubt, can be said in favor of the justice and policy of a separation. It may be said that secession or revolution in any of the United States would be subversive of all federal authority, and, so far as the central government is concerned, the resolving of the community into its original elements—that, if part of the States form new combinations and governments, other States may do the same. California and her sisters of the Pacific will no doubt set up an independent republic and husband their own rich mineral resources. The Western States, equally rich in cereals and other agricultural products, will probably do the same. Then, it may be said, why should not New York City, instead of supporting by her contributions in revenue two-thirds of the expenses of the United States, become also equally independent? As a free city, with but nominal duty on imports, her local government could be supported without taxation upon her people. Thus we could live free from taxes, and have cheap goods nearly duty free. In this she would have the whole and united support of the Southern States, as well as all the other States to whose interests and rights under the Constitution she has always been true.

It is well for individuals or communities to look every danger square in the face, and to meet it calmly and bravely. As dreadful as the severing of the bonds that have hitherto united the States has been in contemplation, it is now apparently a stern and inevitable fact. We have now to meet it with all the consequences, whatever they may be. If the confederacy is broken up the government is dissolved, and it behooves every distinct community, as well as every individual, to take care of themselves.

When disunion has become a fixed and certain fact, why may not New York disrupt the bands which bind her to a venal and corrupt master—to a people and a party that have plundered her revenues, attempted to ruin her commerce, taken away the power of self-government, and destroyed the confederacy of which she was the proud Empire City? Amid the gloom which the present and prospective condition of things must cast over the country, New York, as a *free city*, may shed the only light and hope of a future reconstruction of our once blessed confederacy.

But I am not prepared to recommend the violence implied in these views. In stating this argument in favor of freedom, "peaceably if we can, forcibly if we must," let me not be misunderstood. The redress can be found only in appeals to the magnanimity of the people of the whole State. The events of the past two months have no doubt effected a change in the popular sentiment of the State and national politics. This change may bring us the desired relief, and we may be able to obtain a repeal of the law to which I have referred, and a consequent restoration of our corporate rights.

Wood, JAMES, governor; born in 1750; was made a captain of Virginia troops in 1774; went on a mission to the western Indians in 1775 with only one companion, and displayed so much courage that he greatly pleased the Indians, and effected his object; promoted colonel in November, 1776. After Burgoyne's army was quartered at Charlottesville, Va., in 1781, he was given command of that place; and was governor of Virginia in 1796–99. He died in Olney, Va., July 16, 1813.

Wood, JOHN, author; born in Scotland about 1775; emigrated to the United States in 1800; became editor of the *Western World* in Kentucky in 1816; and had charge of *The Atlantic World*, Washington, D. C.; removed to Richmond, Va., where he was employed in making county maps. He wrote *History of the Administration of John Adams; Full Statement of the Trial and Acquittal of Aaron Burr; Full Exposition of the Clintonian Faction, and the Society of the Columbian Illuminati; Narrative of the Suppression, by Colonel Burr, of the History of the Administration of John Adams, with a Biography of Jefferson and Hamilton*, etc. He died in Richmond, Va., in May, 1822.

Wood, JOHN, pioneer; born in Moravia, N. Y., Dec. 20, 1798; moved to Illinois in 1819, and three years later erected the first cabin in the present city of Quincy; was prominent for sixty years in the affairs of that place; member of the State senate in 1850–54; elected governor of Illinois in 1859. He was made colonel of the 137th Illinois Volunteers in 1864, and prior to that date was quartermaster-general of his State for three years. He died in Quincy, Ill., June 4, 1880. A monument was unveiled to his memory in Quincy, in July, 1883.

Wood, LEONARD, military officer; born in Winchester, N. H., Oct. 9, 1860; graduated at Harvard Medical School in 1884; appointed assistant surgeon with the rank of first lieutenant, United States army, Jan. 5, 1886; accompanied the expedition in search of Geronimo as medical and line officer in the same year, and in recognition of his meritorious services in that campaign received a medal of honor; was promoted surgeon and captain Jan. 5, 1891. He raised the 1st United States Volunteer Cavalry, popularly known as the Rough Riders, at the beginning of the American-Spanish War, and was made its colonel, with Theodore Roosevelt as his lieutenant-colonel, May 8, 1898; won distinction at the battles of Las Guasimas and San Juan Hill; was promoted brigadier-general of volunteers July 8, 1898, and major-general Dec. 8 of the same year. He was military governor of Santiago in 1898–99, and of Cuba in 1899–1902; and was appointed a brigadier-general U. S. A. in 1901, and major-general, Aug. 8, 1903. He was awarded a Congressional medal of honor for distinguished conduct in the campaign against the Apache Indians; commanded the Division of the Philippines in 1906–08, and the Department of the East in 1908–09; was appointed chief of staff U. S. A., Dec. 15, 1909; and under the President's instructions directed the mobilizing and operations of the army sent to the Rio Grande in the spring of 1911 because of the insurrection in Mexico. In 1912 Congress passed a bill by the terms of which General Wood would be legislated out of office as chief of staff.

LEONARD WOOD.

Wood, THOMAS JOHN, military engineer; born in Munfordville, Ky., Sept. 25, 1823; graduated at West Point in 1845, entering the corps of topographical engineers; served in the war with Mexico; was commissioned brigadier-general of volunteers and colonel of the 2d United States Cavalry in 1861; commanded a division in the battle of Chickamauga and at Missionary Ridge; and was active in the Atlanta campaign. On Jan. 27, 1865, he was promoted major-general of volunteers; on March 13 following was brevetted major-general U. S. A.; and on June 9, 1868, was retired with the rank of major-general. He died in Dayton, O., Feb. 25, 1906.

Wood, WALTER ABBOTT, manufacturer; born in Mason, N. H., Oct. 23, 1815; received a common-school education; re-

moved to Hoosic Falls in 1835, where he established himself as a manufacturer of reapers, mowers, and binders. He was elected to Congress in 1878 and 1880; served on the committees on public expenditures and on expenditures in the Interior Department; received the first prizes for the exhibit of his inventions at the world's fairs in London, Paris, Vienna, and Philadelphia. He died in Hoosic Falls, N. Y., Jan. 15, 1892.

Wood, WILLIAM, colonist; born in England about 1580; emigrated to America in 1629; returned to England in 1633; and again came to America and settled in Lynn, Mass., which town he represented in the General Court in 1636; removed to Sandwich in 1637, where he became town clerk, and resided till his death. He published *New England's Prospect; A True, Lively, and Experimental Description of that Part of America commonly called New England*, etc. He died in Sandwich, Mass., in 1669.

Wood, WILLIAM WILLIS WILEY, naval engineer; born in Wake county, N. C., May 30, 1818; learned engineering at the West Point Foundry, N. Y.; entered the naval service in 1845, and, during the Civil War, was general inspector of steam machinery, and had charge of the construction of the National iron-clad fleet and the machinery of the new class of vessels then introduced. He became engineer-in-chief, and was retired May 30, 1880. He died near Jutland, Md., Aug. 31, 1882.

Woodbridge, JOHN, clergyman; born in Stanton, England, in 1614; emigrated to the Massachusetts colony in 1634; ordained minister at Andover, Oct. 24, 1645. Two years later he returned to England, where he remained until 1663, when he again removed to Massachusetts. He died in Newbury, Mass., July 1, 1691.

Woodbridge, WILLIAM, governor; born in Norwich, Conn., Aug. 20, 1780; went with his father to Marietta, O., in 1791, being one of the first settlers of the Northwest Territory; was admitted to the bar in 1806; prosecuting attorney for New London county, O., in 1808–14; made secretary of Michigan Territory by President Madison, and settled in Detroit; member of Congress in 1819–20; judge of the Michigan Supreme Court in 1828–32; governor of Michigan in 1840–41, member of the United States Senate in 1841–47. He died in Detroit, Mich., Oct. 20, 1861.

Woodburn, JAMES ALBERT, historian; born in Bloomington, Ind., Nov. 30, 1856; graduated at Indiana University in 1876; professor of American history in the Indiana University from 1890. Among his works are *Historical Significance of the Missouri Compromise; Causes of the American Revolution; The Monroe Doctrine; The American Republic and Its Government; Political Parties and Party Problems in the United States; American History and Government* (with Prof. T. F. Moran), etc.; editor *Select Orations of Burke and Webster* (with Prof. C. W. Hodgin); *Johnston's Representative American Orations; Lecky's American Revolution; Appleton's American Political History*, etc.

Woodbury, AUGUSTUS, author; born in Beverly, Mass., in 1825; graduated at the Harvard Divinity School in 1849, and was ordained in the Unitarian Church; became pastor of the Westminster Unitarian Church in Providence, R. I., in 1853; was chairman of the Rhode Island board of inspection for prisons in 1866–77; appointed chaplain of the 1st Rhode Island Regiment in 1861, and was chaplain-in-chief of the Grand Army of the Republic in 1874–75. In 1883 he became president of the Providence Athenæum. His publications include *The Preservation of the Republic; Narrative of the Campaign of the 1st Rhode Island Regiment in the Spring and Summer of 1861; An Historical Sketch of the Prisons and Jails of Rhode Island; Memorial of Gen. Ambrose E. Burnside*, etc. He died in Concord, N. H., Nov. 20, 1895.

Woodbury, DANIEL PHINEAS, military officer; born in New London, N. H., Dec. 16, 1812; graduated at the United States Military Academy and commissioned second lieutenant of artillery in 1836; later transferred to the engineer corps; promoted captain in 1853 and major in 1861. He served in the Civil War in the defence of the national Capital and in the engineering work of the Army of the Potomac; and later was superintendent of the engineering operations against Yorktown and Richmond. He received the brevet of brigadier-general for gallantry in the battle of Fredericksburg, for throwing

FRONTISPIECE TO WEBSTER'S SPELLING-BOOK.

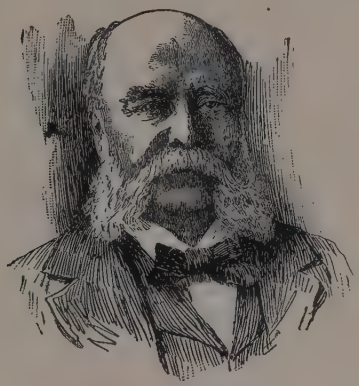
bridges across the Rappahannock in face of the enemy. He was made commandant at Key West, Fla., in 1863, where he died of yellow fever in 1864.

Woodbury, Levi, jurist; born in Francestown, N. H., Dec. 22, 1789; graduated at Dartmouth College in 1809; admitted to the bar in 1812; chosen clerk of the State Senate in 1816; in the same year was appointed a judge of the superior court. He removed to Portsmouth in 1819., was chosen governor of New Hampshire in 1823; speaker of the House in 1825; United States Senator, 1825; and in 1831 was appointed Secretary of the Navy. He was Secretary of the Treasury from 1834 to 1841, when he was again returned to the United States Senate. In Congress Senator Woodbury was a recognized leader of the Democratic party. In 1845 he was appointed one of the justices of the Supreme Court of the United States, and died while in office, in Portsmouth, N. H., Sept. 4, 1851.

Wood-engraving. No department of art in the United States has manifested greater progress towards perfection than engraving on wood, which was introduced by Dr. Alexander Anderson (*q. v.*) in 1794. Before that time engravings to be used typographically were cut on type-metal, and were very rude. As a specimen of the state of the art in the United States when Anderson introduced wood, a facsimile is here given of the frontispiece to the fourteenth edition of Webster's *Spelling-book*, issued in 1791. It is a portrait of Washington, then President of the United States. This was executed on type-metal. When Anderson's more beautiful works on wood appeared, he was employed by Webster's publishers to make

new designs and engravings for the *Spelling-book*, and the designs then made were used for many years.

Woodford, Stewart Lyndon, diplomatist; born in New York City, Sept. 3, 1835; graduated at Columbia College in 1854; studied law and began practice in New York in 1857; was assistant United States district attorney for the southern



STEWART LYNDON WOODFORD.

district of New York in 1861–62; served in the National army in 1862–65, and received the brevet of brigadier-general of volunteers; was lieutenant-governor of New York in 1865–68; Presidential elector and chairman of the electoral college in 1872; member of Congress in 1873–75; and United States attorney for the southern district of New York in 1877–83. He was a member of the commission that drafted the charter for the Greater New York in 1896. He was minister to Spain when war was declared by the United States (1898); president of the Hudson-Fulton Commission in 1907–11. He died Feb. 14, 1913.

Woodford, William, military officer; born in Carolina county, Va., in 1735; was distinguished in the French and Indian War, and in 1775 was appointed colonel of the 2d Virginia Regiment. In the battle at the Great Bridge he was in command, and afterwards was at the head of the 1st Virginia Brigade. He was wounded in the battle of Brandywine, and made a prisoner at the taking of Charleston, in 1780, and carried to New York City, where he died, Nov. 13, 1780.

Woodhull, John, clergyman; born in Miller's Place, Long Island, N. Y., Jan. 26, 1744; graduated at Princeton College in 1766; ordained in the Presbyterian Church in 1770; was called to Freehold, N. J., in 1779. In 1782 he requested Washington to execute an English officer, then a prisoner, for killing Capt. Joseph Huddy, of Monmouth, without a trial. To this Washington acceded, and Captain Asgill, the British officer, was condemned to die. In the mean time, however, the English general appointed a court-martial, which after investigation found that Huddy had been executed by the order of the recent governor of New Jersey, William Franklin. Captain Asgill was, therefore, pardoned. There are only three of Dr. Woodhull's sermons extant: *The Death of General Washington; The Establishment of the Federal Constitution;* and an ordination sermon. He died in Freehold, N. J., Nov. 22, 1824. See Asgill, Sir Charles.

Woodhull, Nathaniel, military officer; born in Mastic, Suffolk co., Long Island, N. Y., Dec. 30, 1722; served in the French and Indian War, and was colonel of a New York regiment under Amherst. In 1769 he was in the New York Assembly, and was one of the few in that body who resisted the obnoxious measures of the British Parliament. In 1776 he was president of the New York Provincial Congress. On the landing of the British on Long Island, he put himself at the head of the militia, with whom he fought in the battle of Long Island. A few days afterwards he was surprised by a party of British light-horsemen, near Jamaica, and, after surrendering his

THE HOUSE IN WHICH WOODHULL DIED.

sword, he was cruelly cut with the weapons of his captors, of which wounds he died at an ancient stone-house at New

Utrecht, Long Island, Sept. 10, 1776. A narrative of his capture and death was published by Henry Onderdonk, Jr., in 1848. His own *Journal of the Montreal Expedition in 1760* was published in the *Historical Magazine* in September, 1861.

Woodmen of America, FRATERNITY OF MODERN, a beneficial organization founded in 1884; has: head camp, 1; subordinate camps, 14,087; members, 1,045,869; paid benefits in the last fiscal year, $9,874,739; paid benefits since organization, $90,992,470.

Woodmen of the World, a beneficial organization, founded in 1891; has: sovereign camp, 1; subordinate camps, 8,651; members, 500,369; paid benefits in the last fiscal year, $4,172,568; paid benefits since organization, $36,072,479.

Wood Pulp and Pulp Wood. According to a statement by the Bureau of the Census, there were 253 wood-pulp mills in operation in 1911, which consumed in a year 4,002,000 cords of pulp wood, valued at $34,478,000, besides slabs and other mill waste amounting to about 250,000 cords, and the total production of air-dry pulp was 2,491,406 tons. The total cost of pulp wood used in paper making increased in ten years from $9,838,000 to $33,802,000, or 244 per cent. See LUMBER, PAPER.

Woodruff, WILFORD, Mormon; born in Northington (now Avon), Conn., March 1, 1807; was ordained a priest in the Mormon Church in 1833; accompanied the Mormons to Salt Lake City; became one of the twelve apostles in April, 1839; travelled over 150,000 miles on missionary tours; succeeded John Taylor as president of the Mormon Church in 1887; and was a member of the Utah legislature for twenty-two years. He died in Salt Lake City, Utah, Sept. 3, 1898.

Woods, CHARLES ROBERT, military officer; born in Newark, O., Feb. 19, 1827; graduated at West Point in 1852. In October, 1861, became colonel of the 76th Ohio Volunteers. He was at the capture of Fort Donelson and in the battle of Shiloh. In the Southwest in 1862, he commanded a brigade in the 15th Corps, performing gallant service at Arkansas Post (see HINDMAN, FORT). He was in nearly all the battles around Vicksburg in 1863, in the contests on Lookout Mountain, Missionary Ridge, and Atlanta campaign. In March, 1865, he was brevetted major-general, and in 1874 was promoted colonel of U. S. army. He died in Newark, O., Feb. 26, 1885.

Woods, WILLIAM ALLEN, jurist; born in Marshall county, Tenn., May 16, 1837; graduated at Wabash College in 1859; admitted to the bar in 1861; a member of the Indiana State legislature in 1867; circuit judge of the 34th circuit of Indiana in 1873–80; judge of the Supreme Court in 1881–83; United States district judge for Indiana in 1883–92; and United States circuit judge from 1892 till his death. He died in Indianapolis, Ind., June 29, 1901.

Woods, WILLIAM BURNHAM, jurist; born in Newark, O., Aug. 3, 1824; graduated at Yale College in 1845; studied law and practised in his native place. After the outbreak of the Civil War he entered the army as lieutenant-colonel; participated in the actions at Shiloh, Chickasaw Bayou, Dallas, Atlanta, Jonesboro, etc., and in the sieges of Vicksburg and Jackson; was brevetted major-general March 13, 1865. After the war was United States judge of the 5th circuit in 1869–80, and associate justice of the United States Supreme Court in 1880–87. He died in Washington, D. C., May 14, 1887.

Wood's Coins. ½*d.*, 1*d.*, 2*d.* brass coins made in 1722 for use in America. Legend, *Rosa Americana 1722. Utile Dulci.*

Wood's Holl, Mass.; on Buzzard's Bay, Vineyard Sound. For many years it has been one of the best-known harbors of refuge for shipping on the New England coast; but its chief distinction is that it is the site of the most important station of the United States fish commission in the country, and one of the most thoroughly equipped propagating places for food fish in the world. Besides the appointments of the fish hatchery, the station is provided with an admirable marine biological laboratory, in which a large number of students are annually instructed by a selected corps of teachers.

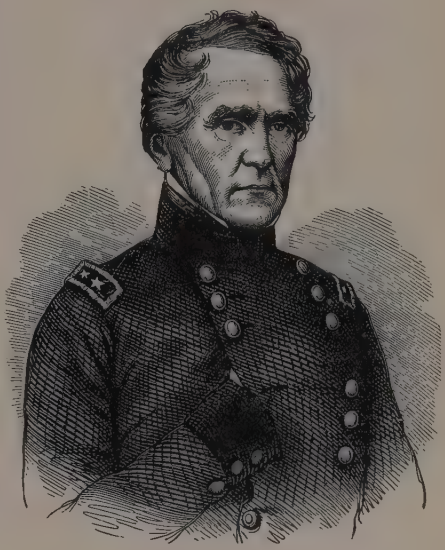
Woodward, ASHBEL, physician; born in Willington, Conn., June 26, 1804; graduated at the medical department of Bowdoin College in 1829, and practised in Franklin, Conn.; was surgeon of the 26th Army Corps in the Civil War and was present at the fall of Port Hudson. He

spent much time in historical research. He was the author of *Vindication of Gen. Israel Putnam; Historical Account of the Connecticut Medical Society; Biographical Sketches of the Early Physicians of Norwich; Life of Gen. Nathaniel Lyon; The Two Hundredth Anniversary of Franklin*, etc. He died in Franklin, Conn., Nov. 20, 1885.

Woodward, AUGUSTUS B., jurist; born in Virginia, presumably in 1775; studied law; went to Michigan in 1805, and became a judge there. In 1824 he was made a judge in the Territory of Florida. His publications include *Considerations on the Executive Government of the United States of America*, etc. He died in Florida in 1827.

Woodworth, SAMUEL, author; born in Scituate, Mass., Jan. 13, 1785; learned the printer's trade; printed a weekly paper in New Haven, Conn., in 1807; removed to New York in 1809; and conducted *The War*, a weekly journal, and *The Halcyon Luminary*, a monthly magazine, during the War of 1812. He wrote *The Champions of Freedom*, a romantic history of the war, and several dramatic pieces; *The Old Oaken Bucket*, and other poems; edited the *Parthenon;* and was one of the founders of the New York *Mirror*. He died in New York City, Dec. 9, 1842.

Wool, JOHN ELLIS, military officer; born in Newburg, N. Y., Feb. 20, 1784. His early education was meagre, but before he was twenty-one he was owner of a book-store in Troy. Losing his property by fire, he studied law, and on April 15, 1812, entered the army as captain in the 13th United States Infantry, raising a company in Troy. At the battle of Queenston Heights he was severely wounded; and, for gallantry in the battles at and near Plattsburg (Sept. 11, 1813), he was brevetted lieutenant-colonel. In 1841 he became brigadier-general. He had been sent to Europe by the government in 1832 to examine some of the military systems on that continent, and witnessed the siege of Antwerp. In 1846 he organized and disciplined volunteers for the war with Mexico, and in less than six weeks despatched to the seat of war 12,000 men fully armed and equipped. Collecting 3,000 men, he penetrated Mexico to Saltillo, after a march of 900 miles without loss. He selected the ground for the battle of Buena Vista, and commanded in the early part of the action until the arrival of General Taylor. For his conduct there he was brevetted major-general and received the thanks of Congress and



JOHN ELLIS WOOL.

a sword. The New York legislature also presented him with a sword. In 1856 he quelled Indian disturbances in Oregon, and was called to the command of the Department of the East, where he furnished the means for the salvation of the national capital and Fort Monroe from seizure in April, 1861.

When he heard of the attack on Massachusetts troops in Baltimore, he hastened to Albany to confer with Governor Morgan. That official resolved to push forward troops to Washington as rapidly as possible. Wool issued orders to the United States quartermaster at New York to furnish all needful transportation, and the commissary of subsistence was directed to issue thirty days' rations to every soldier who might be ordered to Washington. Wool went to New York on the 22d, and made his headquarters at the St. Nicholas Hotel, where he was waited upon by the Union defence committee. A plan of operations for the salvation of

the national capital was arranged between them. At that time all communication with the government was cut off by the Confederates in Baltimore. The general-in-chief (Scott) could not communicate with a regiment outside of the national capital, and Wool was compelled to act in conformity to the demands of the crisis, and to assume great responsibilities. Ships were chartered, supplies were furnished, and troops were forwarded to Washington with extraordinary despatch. To the immensely important work, Fort Monroe, Wool immediately sent gun-carriages, ammunition, and provisions, that it might be held to command the chief waters of Virginia. A dozen State governors applied to him, as the only superior military officer that could be reached, for advice and for munitions of war; and he assisted in arming no less than nine States. With rare vigilance he directed Governor Yates, of Illinois, to send a force to take possession of the arsenal at St. Louis, which he believed to be in danger. The movement was timely, and 21,000 stands of small-arms, two field-pieces, and 110,000 rounds of ammunition were transferred from St. Louis to Illinois. Troops and ammunition were ordered to Cairo, Ill., and New England governors were authorized to put the coast defences within their respective States in good order. When the troops sent to Washington by Wool had opened communication with that city, the first despatch that he received from Scott was an order (April 30) to return to his headquarters at Troy for the "recovery of his health, known to be feeble." The general's health was then perfect. A month afterwards General Wool was informed by the Secretary of War that he was sent into retirement because he had issued orders, "on the application of various governors, for arms, ammunition, etc., without consultation" with the authorities at Washington.

He was made commander of Fort Monroe in August, 1861, and led the expedition that took possession of Norfolk, in May, 1862, in which month he was promoted major-general United States army and placed at the head of the 8th Army Corps, but did not appear in the field. He died in Troy, N. Y., Nov. 10, 1869.

Woollen Industry. As far back as 1850 imports of wool, according to the official reports of the Bureau of Statistics, Department of Commerce and Labor, amounted to 18½ million pounds, valued at $1,681,691; in 1851, 32½ million pounds, valued at $3,833,157; in 1860, pounds not stated, value, $4,842,152; in 1870, 49 million pounds, valued at $6,743,350; in 1880, 128 million pounds, valued at $23,727,650; in 1890, 105 million pounds, valued at $15,264,083; in 1900, 156 million pounds, valued at $20,000,000; and in 1910, 264 million pounds, valued at $51,000,000.

The quantity of wool imported into the United States during 1900–10 was 1,932 million pounds, valued at $324,000,000, and the quantity produced at home 3,051 million pounds, valued at $697,000,000.

Meantime the value of woollen manufactures imported in 1890–1910 was 513¾ million dollars, and the value of woollen goods exported in the same period, 32½ million.

According to a *Bulletin* of the federal Bureau of the Census, the period intervening between the censuses of 1900 and 1905 was an unusually prosperous season for the industries of the United States which use wool as chief raw material—namely, woollen goods, worsted goods, carpets and rugs other than rag, felt goods, and wool hats. The 1,213 establishments engaged in wool manufacture in 1905 were distributed thus: Woollen goods, 792; worsted goods, 226; carpets and rugs, 139; felt goods, 39; and wool hats, 17. The total capital invested was $370,861,691. There was an increase in every industry except wool-hat manufacture, where there was a decrease of 19.7 per cent. The average number of wage-earners in the several industries was 179,976. Materials used in the wool manufacture cost $242,561,096.

The total value of products, $380,934,003, made up of the output of woollen mills, $142,196,658; of worsted-goods factories, $165,745,052; of carpet and rug factories, $61,586,433; of felt-goods factories, $8,948,594, and of wool-hat factories, $2,457,266.

Massachusetts held first rank in the total value of products of all branches, and in value of worsted goods and woollen goods; Pennsylvania was first in the manufacture of carpets and rugs; and New York led in the manufacture of felt goods and wool hats.

WOOLLEN INDUSTRY

In 1905 the worsted manufacture exceeded that of woollen goods in capital, cost of materials, and value of products. An indication of the change of fashion from woollen to worsted goods was the decrease in woollen yarn purchased from 38,903,178 pounds in 1900 to 38,141,488 pounds in 1905, coincident with an increase in worsted yarn from 34,377,736 pounds in 1900 to 43,403,705 in 1905. The quantity of scoured wool consumed in the woollen manufacture was 282,194,618 pounds, and the total quantity of yarns purchased was 203,079,791 pounds, costing $59,904,637.

The principal machinery was 5,968 cards, 1,549 combing-machines, 4,021,098 spindles, and 77,985 looms.

The following table shows the number of sheep and the production of wool in the United States by States and Territories in 1910:

SHEEP AND WOOL IN THE UNITED STATES.

State or Territory.	Sheep of shearing age, April 1, 1910.	Wool, washed and unwashed, 1910.	Wool, scoured, 1910.	Total value, Oct. 1, 1910.
		Pounds.	*Pounds.*	*Dollars.*
Alabama	160 000	560,000	336,000	137,760
Arizona	825 000	4,950,000	1,732,500	918,225
Arkansas	200,000	800,000	480,000	192,000
California	1,900,000	13,300,000	4,522,000	2,080,120
Colorado	1,400,000	9,100,000	3,185,000	1,496,950
Connecticut	35,000	183,750	106,575	47,959
Delaware	7,000	38,500	21,175	9,741
Florida	115,000	373,750	224,250	91,943
Georgia	225,000	375,000	405,000	166,050
Idaho	2,600,000	18,980,000	6,643,000	3,454,360
Illinois	700,000	4,900,000	2,450,000	1,127,000
Indiana	900,000	5,850,000	3,217,500	1,480,050
Iowa	800,000	5,400,000	2,808,000	1,291,680
Kansas	175,000	1,312,500	472,500	245,700
Kentucky	800,000	3,800,000	2,356,000	1,083,760
Louisiana	155,000	573,500	338,365	138,730
Maine	210,000	1,260,000	756,000	340,200
Maryland	130,000	676,000	385,320	173,394
Massachusetts	35,000	217,000	125,860	56,637
Michigan	1,700,000	11,475,000	5,737,500	2,811,375
Minnesota	375,000	2,550,000	1,326,000	556,920
Mississippi	150,000	600,000	348,000	142,680
Missouri	860,000	6,020,000	3,190,600	1,435,770
Montana	4,800,000	33,600,000	12,096,000	6,773,760
Nebraska	250,000	1,625,000	650,000	338,000
Nevada	850,000	5,950,000	1,904,000	1,028,160
New Hampshire	70,000	420,000	210,000	102,900
New Jersey	50,000	275,000	145,750	67,045
New Mexico	3,200,000	19,200,000	6,720,000	3,427,200
New York	825,000	4,950,000	2,574,000	1,287,000
North Carolina	204,000	765,000	443,700	186,354
North Dakota	270,000	1,755,000	702,000	379,080
Ohio	2,600,000	16,900,000	8,281,000	4,554,550
Oklahoma	80,000	520,000	171,600	82,368
Oregon	1,750,000	14,437,500	4,620,000	2,448,600
Pennsylvania	1,050,000	6,300,000	3,276,000	1,801,800
Rhode Island	7,500	39,750	23,055	10,375
South Carolina	50,000	187,500	108,750	44,588
South Dakota	625,000	4,062,500	1,625,000	877,500
Tennessee	291,000	1,236,750	742,050	319,082
Texas	1,325,000	8,943,750	2,951,438	1,623,291
Utah	2,100,000	14,175,000	4,819,500	2,506,140
Vermont	180,000	1,170,000	573,300	280,917
Virginia	365,000	1,642,500	1,034,775	486,344
Washington	450,000	4,050,000	1,255,500	677,970
West Virginia	600,000	3,450,000	1,759,500	1,002,915
Wisconsin	900,000	6,075,000	3,219,750	1,352,295
Wyoming	4,650,000	36,037,500	11,532,000	6,342,600
Grand total	41,999,500	281,362,750	112,605,813	57,479,838
Pulled wool	.....	40,000,000	29,200,000	15,010,000
Total product, 1910	.....	321,362,750	141,805,813	72,489,838

Woolley, John Granville, journalist; born in Collinsville, O., Feb. 15, 1850; graduated at the Ohio Wesleyan University in 1871; admitted to the bar in 1873; was prosecuting attorney in Minneapolis, Minn., in 1881; practised in New York City in 1886; and became a lecturer principally on temperance in 1888. Was the Prohibition candidate for President of the United States, in 1900; removed to Honolulu, Hawaii. His publications include *Temperance Progress in the 19th Century.*

Woolly-Heads, name applied to members of the Whig party who manifested a marked sympathy with anti-slavery sentiment in the North in 1850.

Woolsey, Melancthon Taylor, naval officer; born in New York, in 1782; studied law for a while, but entered the navy as a midshipman, April 9, 1800. He served with credit in the West Indies and the Mediterranean. In 1807 he was commissioned a lieutenant, and in 1808 was sent to Sackett's Harbor to superintend the construction of the *Oneida.* He served on Lake Ontario during the War of 1812–15. Woolsey was made master-commandant in July, 1813, and captain in April, 1816. He had charge of the Pensacola navy-yard in 1827. He died in Utica, N. Y., May 18, 1838.

Woolsey, Theodore Dwight, educator; born in New York City, Oct. 31, 1801; graduated at Yale College in 1820; studied theology at Princeton; was licensed to preach in 1825, and became Professor of Greek in Yale in 1831. He was elected president of Yale College in 1846, and resigned the office in 1871. He resided in New Haven afterwards, giving instruction in the Law School. Dr. Woolsey was the author of several valuable works, and editor of classical volumes. He died in New Haven, Conn., July 1, 1889.

Woolson, Constance Fenimore, author; born in Claremont, N. H., March 5, 1838; grandniece of James Fenimore Cooper; educated in Cleveland, O., and New York City; lectured on literary, social, historical, and dramatic subjects; contributed to periodicals; and wrote *Castle Nowhere; Rodman, the Keeper; For the Major; Horace Chase,* etc. She died in Venice, Italy, Jan. 24, 1894.

Wooster, David, military officer; born in Stratford, Conn., March 2, 1710; graduated at Yale College in 1738, and was made captain of an armed vessel to protect the Connecticut coast in 1739. He commanded the sloop-of-war *Connecticut*, which convoyed troops on the expedition against Louisburg in 1745, and was sent in command of a cartel-ship, but was not permitted to land in France. Made captain in Pepperell's regiment, he afterwards received half-pay until 1774, and, as colonel and brigadier-general, served

DAVID WOOSTER.

through the French and Indian War. He served in the campaign in Canada in 1775, having been made a brigadier-general in June that year. After the death of Montgomery, he was in chief command for some months, after which he resigned and was made major-general of Connecticut militia. While opposing the invasion of Tryon, sent to destroy stores at Danbury, he was mortally wounded (April 27, 1777), at Ridgefield, and died, May 2 following. The State of Connecticut erected a neat monument over his grave at Danbury.

Worcester, a city and county seat of Worcester county, Mass.; on the Blackstone River; 44 miles west of Boston. It is noted for the variety and extent of its manufactures, especially of wire, envelopes, looms, boots and shoes, and machinery for cotton and woollen mills. The city, which contains a large number of villages, was settled in 1674 under the name of the Quinsigamond Plantations. The first settlement was soon broken up by hostile Indians; as was also the second one, in 1684. A permanent one was

made in 1713; the town was incorporated June 14, 1722; and a city charter was granted Feb. 29, 1848. The first church was organized in 1719. Between 1790 and 1800 Isaiah Thomas, who had moved there from Boston, carried on the most extensive publishing business in the country. The Declaration of Independence was first publicly read in Massachusetts from the steps of the Old South Church there. The development of Worcester's manufacturing interests has been rapid since 1828, when the Blackstone Canal was opened. Pop. (1910), 145,986.

Worcester, DEAN CONANT, zoologist; born in Thetford, Vt., Oct. 1, 1866; graduated at the University of Michigan in 1889; accompanied the Steere Scientific Expedition to the Philippine Islands in 1887–88; conducted a scientific expedition with a single companion to the same islands in 1890–93; and was professor of zoology and curator of the Zoological Museum at the University of Michigan in 1895–99. He was a United States Commissioner to the Philippines in 1899–1901; and Secretary of the Interior, under the Philippine Insular government from 1901. His publications include *The Philippine Islands and Their People; The Non-Christian Tribes of Northern Luzon;* and articles on the mammals and birds of the Philippines.

Worcester, ELWOOD, clergyman; born in Massillon, O., in 1863; was ordained into the Protestant Episcopal ministry in 1890; chaplain and professor of philosophy and psychology in Lehigh University in 1890–96; rector in Philadelphia in 1896–1904; then became rector of Emmanuel Church, Boston. Here he established what became widely known as the "Emmanuel Movement," a method of relieving or curing certain ailments through the influence of prayer and mental suggestion, and, in 1908, a summer school of psychotherapy. His methods were applied only to sufferers from functional disturbances, chiefly those of nervous forms, no organic cases being received, and he required the preliminary co-operation of a physician of approved standing. The "Emmanuel Movement" spread rapidly throughout the country, and was adopted in countless churches, where pastors found encouragement in the results and in the approval of local physicians. Dr. Worcester was assisted in his work by the Rev. Dr. Samuel McComb and the distinguished psychologist, Dr. Cabot, the latter making the preliminary examinations in all important cases.

In his soul and body cure through faith and belief there is much that is old and little that is new. His methods have, in part at least, been taught and indorsed by such men as Profs. William James and Putnam of Harvard, Dubois of Geneva, Jastrow and Barker of Johns Hopkins, and Bernheim of the University of Nancy. Professor Barker subjected the methods of the "movement" to the closest scrutiny, and summarized his impressions as follows:

"Psychology and physiology must join hands in this work, and the movement towards such a co-operation here at Emmanuel Church impresses me very favorably. A trained psychologist with an unusual understanding of the mental state of nervous people and with knowledge of their religious and social experiences, who interests himself in minor maladies amenable to psychic treatment, and whose work is carefully controlled by skilled neurologists and psychiatrists, ought to be a great power for good in this community.

"If your field of work is not as large as the over-enthusiastic may assert, it is, I am sure, much larger than the pessimistic might fear. If you can by the simple methods which you employ give peace of mind to the disturbed, cheer the despondent, relieve the fearful, the anxious, or the apprehensive, embolden the timid, enable the distracted to concentrate and replace indecision by a fixed purpose, you will confer an incalculable benefit upon all."

Worcester, JOSEPH EMERSON, lexicographer; born in Bedford, N. H., Aug. 24, 1784; graduated at Yale College in 1811. While teaching school at Salem he wrote a *Geographical Dictionary, or Universal Gazetteer, Ancient and Modern,* published in 1817. In 1818 he issued a *Gazetteer of the United States.* This was followed by several elementary works on geography and history. In 1828 he issued *Johnson's English Dictionary, as Improved by Todd and Abridged by Chalmers, with Walker's Pronouncing Dictionary Combined, to*

which is added Walker's Key. Dr. Worcester is best known by his series of dictionaries. For a complete list of his works see Allibone's *Critical Dictionary of English Authors.* He died in Cambridge, Mass., Oct. 27, 1865.

Worden, JOHN LORIMER, naval officer; born in Mount Pleasant, Westchester county, N. Y., March 12, 1818; entered the navy in 1834 as midshipman; was made lieutenant in 1846, and commander on July 16, 1862. He was despatched from Washington on the morning of April 7, 1861, by the Secretary of the Navy, to carry orders to Captain Adams, of the *Sabine,* near Fort Pickens. Worden arrived at Montgomery, Ala., late at night on the 9th, and departed for Pensacola early the next morning. He observed great excitement in the Gulf region, and, fearing he might be arrested, he read his despatches carefully and then tore them up. On the morning of the 11th he arrived at Pensacola. There he was taken before General Bragg, and told that officer he was a lieutenant of the United States navy, and had been sent from Washington, under orders from the Navy Department, to communicate with the squadron under Captain Adams. Bragg immediately wrote a "pass" and, as he handed it to Worden, remarked, "I suppose you have despatches for Captain Adams?" Worden replied, "I have no written ones, but I have a verbal communication to make to him from the Navy Department." In the *Wyandotte,* a flag-of-truce vessel lying in Pensacola harbor, Worden was conveyed to the *Sabine,* arriving there about noon, April 12. His verbal despatch was to direct Captain Adams to reinforce Fort Pickens immediately. It was done that night, just in time to save it from capture by the Confederates.

Worden immediately returned to Pensacola and started for Washington, at 9 P.M., by way of Montgomery, on a railway train. When Bragg found he had committed a great blunder in allowing Worden to go to the *Sabine* (a spy having informed him of the reinforcement of Fort Pickens that very night), he endeavored to shield his own stupidity by falsely accusing Worden of having practised falsehood and deception in gaining permission to visit Captain Adams. This accusation he telegraphed to Montgomery, and recommended Worden's arrest. It was done a short distance below Montgomery, and on Monday, April 15, he was cast into the common jail at the capital of Alabama. Bragg's accusation made him an object of scorn to Davis and his compeers and the citizens generally; and there, in that prison, this officer was confined until Nov. 11 following, when he was paroled and ordered to report to the Confederate government at Richmond, and, on the 18th, was exchanged for Lieutenant Sharpe, of the Confederate navy. Worden was the first prisoner of war held by the Confederates.

In March, 1862, he commanded the *Mon-*

JOHN LORIMER WORDEN.

itor, which fought the *Merrimac* (see *Monitor and Merrimac*), when he was severely injured about the head. In command of the *Montauk*, in the South Atlantic Blockading Squadron, he engaged Fort McAllister, Ga., in January and February, 1863, and attacked and destroyed the *Nashville*, under the guns of that fort, on Feb. 28. He was engaged in the attempt to capture Charleston, under the command of Dupont, in April, 1863. From 1869 to 1874 he was superintendent of the naval academy at Annapolis, and in 1876 was in command of the European Station. He was promoted rear-admiral Nov. 20, 1872; and was retired under a special act of Congress, Dec. 23, 1886. For his important services in encountering the *Merrimac*, he received the thanks of Congress. He died in Washington, D. C., Oct. 18, 1897.

Work, HENRY CLAY, song writer; born in Middletown, Conn., Oct. 1, 1832; received a common-school education; and was apprenticed to a printer. While working at his trade he studied harmony, and when the Civil War broke out he began to write songs, the most famous ones being *Nicodemus the Slave*, and *Marching Through Georgia*. Besides writing songs and the music for them, he invented and patented a knitting machine, a walking doll, and a rotary engine. He died in Hartford, Conn., June 8, 1884.

World Power, THE UNITED STATES AS A. In spite of the great achievements of the past, the war with Spain was in a sense the parting of the ways, the end of the old and the beginning of a new era in American diplomacy. It brought new prestige and enlarged opportunities. The occupation of the Philippine Islands and the incorporation of Hawaii have placed the nation on an altogether different footing in the Orient; the early completion of the Panama Canal and the possession of Porto Rico change our attitude to South and Central America. We can no longer pose as disinterested spectators of political changes in these quarters of the globe. The future doubtless has in store burdens and responsibilities from which it is not possible to shrink.

World's Columbian Exposition. See COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION.

World's Fairs. See EXPOSITIONS, INDUSTRIAL.

World's Map. The plan for a map of the world, that shall be on a uniform scale and thus obviate the difficulty of comparisons of the best maps extant, because of the difference of the scales on which they are drawn, was suggested by Prof. Albrecht Peuck, then of the University of Vienna, and later of Berlin, to the International Geographical Congress in Berne in 1891. The plan proposed a uniform scale of 1 to 1,000,000, and the entire international map will consist of about 1,500 sheets, each about 20 by 30 inches, representing a territory 240 by 360 miles, four degrees of latitude and six of longitude. The United States, to which fifty-two sheets were assigned, was the first nation to adopt the suggestion and enter on the work, through the Geological Survey. By the summer of 1911, nine of these sheets had been completed, covering the Eastern, Central, and Western States. The work is rapidly progressing.

World's Young Women's Christian Association, an organization founded in 1894. In 1910 sixteen national associations were affiliated: Great Britain, United States, Canada, Germany, Italy, France, Australia, Finland, Holland, Japan, Portugal, Denmark, Hungary, and South Africa, Sweden, and India. The headquarters are in London. Office, 26 George Street, Hanover Square, West. The executive committee, chairman, Mrs. J. Herbert Tritton, is composed of a resident membership in London and two representatives of the United States and other countries, and the general secretary is Miss Clarissa Spencer. The fourth World's Association conference was held in Berlin in 1910. Fifteen States of the United States have organized State associations, and there are 189 city associations and 639 student associations. The international convention occurs biennially. Each year ten summer schools are held for the training of young women in secretarial and Bible work. The *Association Monthly* is the official organ of the National Association of the United States. A special department is maintained for young college women, and through this department the student volunteer movement is connected with the association work.

Worth, WILLIAM JENKINS, military officer; born in Hudson, N. Y., March 1,

1794; began life as a clerk in a store at Hudson, and entered the military service, as lieutenant of infantry, in May, 1813. He was highly distinguished in the battles of Chippewa and at Lundy's Lane, in July, 1814, and was severely wounded in the latter contest. He was in command of cadets at West Point from 1820 to 1828, and in 1838 was made colonel of the 8th United States Infantry. He served in the Seminole War from 1840 to 1842, and was in command of the army in Florida in 1841–42. He was brevetted a brigadier-general in March, 1842, commanded a brigade under General Taylor in Mexico in 1846, and was distinguished in the capture of Monterey. In 1847–48 he commanded a division, under General Scott, in the capture of Vera Cruz, and in the battles from Cerro Gordo to the assault and capture of the city of Mexico. He was brevetted major-general, and was presented with a sword by Congress, by the States of New York and Louisiana, and by his native county, Columbia. A monument was erected to his memory at the junction of Broadway and Fifth Avenue, New York City, by the corporation of that city. He died in San Antonio, Tex., May 17, 1849.

Worth, WILLIAM SCOTT, military officer; born in Albany, N. Y., Jan. 6, 1840; son of Gen. William Jenkins Worth, U. S. A.; entered the army as a 2d lieutenant, 8th Infantry, April 26, 1861; was promoted captain Jan. 14, 1866; colonel, 16th Infantry, Aug. 11, 1898; brigadier-general, Oct. 29 following; and was retired in the following month on account of disabling wounds in the service. During the war period of 1898 he also held the rank of brigadier-general of volunteers, and in the Santiago campaign he was severely wounded in the charge on San Juan Hill. He was twice brevetted for gallantry in the Civil War. He died on Staten Island, N. Y., Oct. 16, 1904.

Wrangel, CHARLES MAGNUS VON, clergyman; born in Sweden about 1730; educated at the University of Upsala; ordained court preacher to the King of Sweden; settled in Philadelphia in 1759, and took charge of all the Swedish Lutheran bodies in New Jersey and Pennsylvania. After nine years of faithful and successful work he returned to Sweden. He died in Sala, Sweden, in 1786.

Wrangel, FERDINAND, BARON VON, explorer; born in Esthonia, Russia, Dec. 29, 1796; educated in the Naval Academy of St. Petersburg; made two voyages around the world in 1817–19 and 1825–27; commanded an expedition to the Polar Sea in 1820–24; and was governor of the Russian possessions in North America (Alaska) in 1829–34. He died in Dorpat, Russia, June 6, 1870.

WRECKS

Wrecks. Statistics of wrecks and shipping disasters on or near the coasts and on the rivers of the United States, and to American vessels in foreign waters, collected under act of Congress, June 20, 1874, are published in the *Annual Reports of the United States Life-saving Service.* See LIFE-SAVING SERVICE, UNITED STATES.

The following is a list of the most notable wrecks and casualties in American waters, and disasters to American vessels in foreign waters:

Atlantic Ocean, Gulf of Mexico, etc.—British powder-ship *Morning Star* struck by lightning and blown up in New York Harbor.....Aug. 9, 1778

La Tribuna, thirty-six guns, wrecked off Halifax; 300 lives lost.....Nov. 16, 1797

Transport *Æneas* wrecked off Newfoundland; 340 lives lost....Oct. 23, 1805

Transport *Harpooner* wrecked near Newfoundland; 200 lives lost
Nov. 10, 1816

Magazine of steam-frigate *Fulton* explodes at Brooklyn navy-yard; vessel entirely destroyed; twenty-six lives lost
June 4, 1829

Brig *Billow* lost in storm on Ragged Island, N. S.; all on board, 137 in number, perish.....April 9, 1831

Lady Sherbrooke, from Londonderry to Quebec; lost near Cape Ray; 273 persons perish; thirty-two only saved
Aug. 19, 1831

Ship *Lady of the Lake,* on passage to Quebec, wrecked on an iceberg; 215 lives lost.....May 11, 1833

Steamboat *Royal Tar*, of St. John's, N. B., destroyed by fire in Penobscot Bay; thirty-two lives lost.....Oct. 25, 1836

Ship *Bristol*, on passage from Liverpool to New York, wrecked near Rockaway, L. I.; seventy lives lost
Nov. 20, 1836

Ship *Mexico*, from Liverpool, wrecked on Hempstead Beach, L. I.; 108 lives lost.....Jan. 3, 1837

Steamboat *Home*, on passage from New York to Charleston, S. C., wrecked in a gale near Ocracoke; about 100 lives lost
Oct. 9, 1837

Steamboat *Pulaski*, from Savannah to Baltimore, bursts a boiler off coast of North Carolina; of nearly 200 passengers and crew only sixty are saved
June 14, 1838

Steamboat *Lexington*, New York to Stonington, burned off Eden's Neck, L. I.; 140 lives lost.....Jan. 13, 1840

Brig *Florence*, Rotterdam to New York, wrecked off southeast coast of Newfoundland; fifty lives lost.....Aug. 9, 1840

Steamer *President*, New York to Liverpool, sailed March 11, with 136 persons on board; not heard from after storm of.....March 13, 1841

William Browne, of Philadelphia, wrecked by striking ice on her passage from England to America; about seventy lives lost; sixteen passengers who had been received into the long-boat are thrown overboard by the crew to lighten her
April 19, 1841

Steamboat *Medora*, of Baltimore, explodes her boiler just after leaving the wharf; twenty-eight killed and forty injured.....April 14, 1842

Phœnix wrecked in a storm off the coast of Newfoundland; many lives lost
Nov. 26, 1843

Brig *Sutley*, from Pictou, N. S., to Fall River, Mass., wrecked in Vineyard Sound; thirty drowned.....June 27, 1846

Steamer *New York*, from Galveston to New Orleans, founders at sea; about twenty lives lost.....Sept. 7, 1846

All but twelve out of 104 vessels in port at Havana sink or are wrecked, and fifty coastwise vessels destroyed by a hurricane.....Oct. 10–11, 1846

United States brig *Somers* struck by a squall off Vera Cruz and sunk; forty-one lives lost.....Dec. 8, 1846

American emigrant ship *William and Mary* wrecked on a sunken reef near the Bahamas; about 170 persons perish
May 3, 1853

Aurora, of Hull, sails from New York April 26, and founders; about twenty-five lives lost.....May 20, 1853

Steamer *San Francisco*, bound for California with 700 United States troops, founders at sea, and 240 of the soldiers are swept from the deck and perish
Dec. 23–31, 1853

Ship *Staffordshire*, from Liverpool to Boston, strikes on Blande Rock, south of Seal Island; 178 lives lost
Dec. 30, 1853

The *City of Glasgow*, with 480 souls. It was believed that she ran into an iceberg off the Banks.....1854

Ship *Powhatan*, from Havre to New York, with 311 emigrants, goes ashore in a gale on Long Beach, 7 miles north of Egg Harbor light, and is wrecked; no passengers saved.....April 16, 1854

Steamer *Arctic*, from Liverpool, struck by the *Vesta*, 40 miles off Cape Race, Newfoundland, in a fog, and sinks; over 350 lives lost.....Sept. 27, 1854

Collins line steamer *Pacific* leaves Liverpool for New York with 240 persons on board and is never heard from
Sept. 23, 1856

French steamer *Le Lyonnais* sunk off Nantucket by collision with the bark *Adriatic;* 260 lives lost.....Nov. 2, 1856

Steamship *Tempest*, Anchor line, 150 persons on board, never heard from after leaving port.....Feb. 26, 1857

Steamship *Louisiana*, from New Orleans to Galveston, burned near Galveston; fifty-five lives lost....May 31, 1857

Steamer *J. W. Harris* sunk in collision with steamer *Metropolis* in Long Island Sound; fourteen lives lost...Aug. 8, 1857

Steamer *Central America*, from Havana to New York, springs a leak in a heavy storm, Sept. 8; 100 persons are taken off by a passing vessel, Sept. 12, and soon after she sinks, carrying down over 400 persons.....Sept. 12, 1857

American ship *Pomona*, Liverpool to New York, wrecked on Blackwater Bank, the master mistaking the Blackwater for the Tuskar light; only twenty-four out of 419 persons saved
night of April 27–28, 1859

Steamship *Indian,* from Liverpool to Portland, strikes on Seal Ledge, about 65 miles east of Halifax, and breaks in two amidships; twenty-four lives lost
Nov. 21, 1859

American emigrant vessel *Luna* wrecked on rocks off Barfleur; about 100 lives lost
Feb. 19, 1860

New mail steamer *Hungarian* wrecked near Cape Sable, N. S.; all on board (205) lost.....night of Feb. 19–20, 1860

Steamer *Canadian* strikes on ice-field in Strait of Belle Isle, Newfoundland, and founders in half an hour; thirty-five lives lost.....June 4, 1861

British mail steamer *Anglo-Saxon* wrecked in a dense fog on reef off Cape Race, Newfoundland; about 237 out of 446 lives lost.....April 27, 1863

Steamer *Constitution* wrecked on Cape Lookout shoals; forty lives lost
Dec. 25, 1865

Steamer *Evening Star,* from New York to New Orleans, founders at sea; about 250 lives lost.....Oct. 3, 1866

Steamship *City of Boston,* Inman line, 177 persons on board, never heard from after leaving port.....Jan. 28, 1870

Steamers *Rhone* and *Wye* and about fifty other vessels driven ashore and wrecked at St. Thomas, 1,000 lives lost
Oct. 29, 1867

Steamer *Kensington* collides with bark *Templar* off Cape Hatteras; both wrecked and many lives lost.....Jan. 27, 1871

Staten Island ferry-boat *Westfield* explodes at New York; 100 lives lost, 200 persons injured.....July 30, 1871

Steamer *Metis* sunk in collision on Long Island Sound; fifty lives lost
Aug. 30, 1872

Steamer *Missouri,* from New York to Havana, burned at sea; thirty-two lives lost.....Oct. 22, 1872

White Star steamer *Atlantic* strikes on Marr's Rock, off Nova Scotia; 547 lives lost out of 976.....April 1, 1873

French steamer *Ville du Havre,* from New York to Havre, sunk in sixteen minutes in mid-ocean by collision with ship *Loch Earn;* 230 lives lost out of 313
Nov. 23, 1873

American steamer *City of Waco* burned off Galveston bar; fifty-three lives lost
Nov. 9, 1875

American ship *Harvest Queen* wrecked by collision about 45 miles from Queenstown; twenty-seven lives lost
Dec. 31, 1875

Loss of twelve American whaling ships in Arctic ice, reported by whaling bark *Florence;* about 100 lives lost
Oct. 12, 1876

British ship *Circassian* stranded on Bridgehampton Beach, L. I.; twenty-eight lives lost.....Dec. 29, 1876

American steamer *George Cromwell* stranded off Cape St. Mary's, Newfoundland; thirty lives lost.....Jan. 5, 1877

American steamer *George Washington* stranded off Mistaken Point, Newfoundland; twenty-five lives lost
Jan. 20, 1877

American ship *George Green* stranded near Dartmouth, England; twenty-four lives lost.....Jan. 22, 1877

American steamer *Leo* burned 83 miles south of Tybee light, Georgia; twenty-three lives lost.....April 13, 1877

United States sloop-of-war *Huron* wrecked on coast of North Carolina; about 100 lives lost.....Nov. 24, 1877

Steamer *Metropolis* wrecked on North Carolina coast; about 100 lives lost
Jan. 31, 1878

American steamer *Emily B. Souder* founders off Cape Hatteras, N. C.; thirty-eight lives lost.....Dec. 10, 1878

Thirteen American fishing schooners founder off George's Bank, Newfoundland; 144 lives lost.....Feb. 12–16, 1879

American steamer *Champion* wrecked in collision with ship *Lady Octavia,* 15 miles from Delaware light-ship; thirty-one lives lost.....Nov. 7, 1879

American steamer *Narraganset* wrecked in collision near Cornfield Point shoal, Long Island Sound; twenty-seven lives lost.....June 11, 1880

American steamer *Seawanhaka* burned off Ward's Island, N. Y.; twenty-four lives lost.....June 28, 1880

American steamer *San Salvador* lost at sea while making a trip from Honduras to Cuba; twenty-nine lives lost
August, 1880

Steamer *City of Vera Cruz* founders off Florida coast; sixty-eight lives lost
Aug. 29, 1880

Steamer *Bahama* founders between Porto Rico and New York; twenty lives lost.....Feb. 4, 1882

Thirty-five wrecks during a storm off Newfoundland.....about Dec. 19, 1882

Six American schooners founder off St. George's bank; seventy-six lives lost November, 1883

American steamship *City of Columbus* wrecked on Devil's Bridge, off Gay Head light, Mass.; ninety-nine lives lost Jan. 18, 1884

Belgian White Cross Line steamship *Daniel Steinman* struck on rock off Sambro Head, N. S.; 131 lives lost April 3, 1884

Cunard steamer *Oregon*, from Liverpool to New York, run into by an unknown schooner, 18 miles east of Long Island; all the passengers (631) and crew (205) taken off in safety, the ship sinking eight hours afterwards.....March 14, 1886

Three Atlantic steamers stranded in one day: the *Persian Monarch* on the Portland breakwater, the Cunard steamer *Pavonia* on High Pine Ledge, Massachusetts Bay, and the Beaver line steamer *Lake Huron* on Madame Island, 7 miles below Quebec; each owing to heavy fog Oct. 29, 1886

American sloop yacht *Mystery*, on a pleasure trip, capsizes off Barren Island, Jamaica Bay, N. Y.; twenty-five lives lost July 10, 1887

American ship *Alfred D. Snow* stranded off coast of Ireland; thirty lives lost Jan. 4, 1888

Steamer *Vizcaya*, from New York to Havana, run into by schooner *Cornelius Hargraves* near Barnegat light, N. J.; both vessels sink within seven minutes; about seventy lives lost.....Oct. 29, 1890

The *Naronic*, of the White Star Line, disappeared some time after Feb. 11, 1893, with seventy-four persons aboard, believed to have encountered an iceberg.

United States corvette *Kearsarge* wrecked on Roncardo reef, about 200 miles northeast from Bluefield, Nicaragua Feb. 2, 1894

Steamer *Norge* wrecked on Rockall Reef in North Atlantic; nearly 600 lives lost June 25, 1894

German steamer *Elbe* sunk in collision with British steamer *Crathie* in North Sea; 335 lives lost.....Jan. 30, 1895

Spanish cruiser *Reina Regenta* foundered in Atlantic at entrance to Mediterranean; 400 lives lost.....March 11, 1895

United States battle-ship *Maine* blown up in Havana Harbor, Cuba Feb. 15, 1898

Steamship *Bourgogne* rammed British steel sailing-vessel *Cromartyshire* and sank rapidly; 571 lives lost...July 2, 1898

Steamers *Portland* and *Pentagoet* lost with all on board (about 180), and nearly 200 other vessels wrecked (loss of life about 200), in great storm on North Atlantic coast.....Nov. 26–27, 1898

Steam ferry-boat *Chicago* sunk in collision with steamer *City of Augusta* in New York harbor.....Oct. 31, 1899

British steamer *Ariosto* wrecked near Cape Hatteras, N. C., twenty-one drowned Dec. 24, 1899

Excursion steamer *General Slocum*, with 1,358 persons on board belonging to a New York Lutheran Sunday-school, caught fire off Ward's Island, was beached on North Brothers Island, and burned to the water's edge; 958 lives lost..June 15, 1904

White Star liner *Republic* rammed in fog off Nantucket light-ship by steamer *Florida;* abandoned and sunk; all passengers and crew saved by means of wireless telegraphy.....Jan. 23, 1909

White Star liner *Titanic* on her maiden voyage to New York strikes an iceberg, nearly 1,700 lives lost ....April 15, 1912

Pacific Ocean, etc.—*Independence* wrecked on Margaretta Island, off coast of Lower California, the vessel taking fire; 140 persons drowned or burned to death, a few escaping with great suffering on a barren shore.....Feb. 16, 1853

Steamboat *Secretary*, crossing San Pablo Bay from San Francisco to Petaluma, bursts her boiler; more than fifty lives lost .....April 15, 1854

Steamer *Northerner* wrecked on a rock near Cape Mendocino, between San Francisco and Oregon; thirty-eight lives lost Jan. 6, 1860

American vessel *Oneida* run down by Peninsular and Oriental steamer *Bombay*, off Yokohama; about 115 lives lost Jan. 24, 1870

American steamer *Pacific* collides, 30 miles southwest of Cape Flattery; 236 lives lost.....Nov. 4, 1875

Grappler burned near Bute Inlet, Vancouver Island; about seventy lives lost about May 3, 1883

American schooner *Flying Scud*, bound for Kadiak, Alaska, never heard from; twenty-four persons on board
November, 1886

American schooner *Harvey Mills* founders, 60 miles southwest of Cape Flattery, Wash.; twenty-three lives lost
Dec. 14, 1886

American bark *Atlantic* stranded at entrance to Golden Gate, Cal.; twenty-seven lives lost.....Dec. 17, 1886

American ship *St. Stephen*, from Port Townsend to San Francisco, founders at sea; twenty-seven lives lost..April, 1887

British bark *Abercorn* stranded on Damon's Point, north of Gray's Harbor, Wash.; twenty-two lives lost.Jan. 30, 1888

American ferry-boat *Julia* explodes her boiler at South Vallejo, Cal.; thirty lives lost.....Feb. 27, 1888

American bark *Ohio* stranded near Point Hope, Alaska; twenty-five lives lost
Oct. 3, 1888

United States steamers *Trenton* and *Vandalia* wrecked, and the *Nipsic* stranded, in a storm at Apia, Samoan Islands; fifty-one lives lost. In the same storm the German steamers *Adler* and *Eber* are wrecked, with a loss of ninety-six lives
March 16, 1889

American steamer *Alaskan* founders at sea between Aslona, Or., and San Francisco; twenty-six lives lost
May 13, 1889

Ship *Elizabeth* wrecked at entrance to San Francisco Harbor; eighteen lives lost
Feb. 22, 1891

United States squadron destroys Spanish squadron in Manila Bay, Philippine Islands. Spanish loss about 600 killed or wounded.....May 1, 1898

Steamer *Chilkat* cast away off Eureka Harbor, Cal., ten lives lost..April 4, 1899

United States cruiser *Yosemite* wrecked off the island of Guam....Nov. 13, 1900

Pacific mail steamship *City of Rio Janeiro* wrecked off Fort Point, Cal.
Feb. 23, 1901

Steamer *Walla Walla* sunk in collision with an unknown French ship off Cape Mendocino; 27 lives lost.....Jan. 2, 1902

Great Lakes.—Steamboat *Washington* takes fire on Lake Erie, near Silver Creek; forty to fifty lives lost.....June 16, 1838

Steamboat *Erie* burned on Lake Erie about 33 miles from Buffalo; about 170 lives lost.....Aug. 9, 1841

Steamer *Phœnix* burned on Lake Michigan, 15 miles off Sheboygan; about 240 lives lost, mostly emigrants from Holland
Nov. 21, 1847

Steamer *Anthony Wayne*, from Sandusky to Buffalo on Lake Erie, explodes her boiler and sinks; thirty-eight killed or missing.....April 27, 1850

Steamer *Griffith*, from Erie to Cleveland, burned; only thirty or forty out of 330 lives saved.....June 17, 1850

Steamer *Atlantic* collides with propeller *Ogdensburg* on Lake Erie and sinks in half an hour; 250 lives lost
Aug. 20, 1852

Steamer *E. K. Collins*, from Sault Ste. Marie to Cleveland, takes fire on the lake and is burned; twenty-three lives lost
Oct. 8, 1854

Steamer *Northern Indiana* burned on Lake Erie; over thirty lives lost
July 17, 1856

Steamer *Niagara* burned on Lake Michigan; sixty to seventy lives lost
Sept. 24, 1856

American steamer *Lady Elgin* sunk in collision with schooner *Augustus* on Lake Michigan; of 385 persons on board, 287 were lost, including Herbert Ingram, M. P., founder of the *Illustrated London News*, and his son.....Sept. 8, 1860

Steamer *Sea Bird* burned on Lake Michigan; 100 lives lost....April 9, 1868

Steamer *Hippocampus* wrecked in Lake Michigan; many lives lost..Sept. 8, 1868

American steamer *Equinox* founders on Lake Michigan, 8 miles off Point Au Sable; twenty-six lives lost..Sept. 9, 1875

American steamer *St. Clair* burned on Lake Superior, near Fourteen Mile Point
July 9, 1876

American steamer *Alpena* founders on Lake Michigan; sixty lives lost
Oct. 16, 1880

Northwest transit service steamer *Asia* founders between Ontario and Sault Ste. Marie; about ninety-eight lives lost
Sept. 14, 1882

American steamer *Manistee* founders off Eagle Harbor, Lake Michigan; thirty lives lost.....Nov. 14, 1883

British steamer *Algoma* stranded on south shore Isle Royal, Lake Superior; forty-eight lives lost.....Nov. 7, 1885

American steamer *Champlain* burned off Fisherman's Island, Lake Michigan; twenty-two lives lost.....June 17, 1887

American steamer *Vernon* founders on Lake Michigan; forty-one lives lost Oct. 29, 1887

Steel steamer *Western Reserve* breaks in two on Lake Superior; twenty-six persons drowned.....Sept. 1, 1892

Propeller *Wocoken* ashore off Long Point, Lake Erie; fourteen lives lost Oct. 14, 1893

Propeller *Dean Richmond* founders off Dunkirk, Lake Erie; twenty-three lives lost.....Oct. 14, 1893

Propellers *Philadelphia* and *Albany* collide off Point Aux Barques, Lake Huron; twenty-four lives lost.....Nov. 7, 1893

Steamer *Niagara* founders in Lake Erie; sixteen lives lost.....Dec. 5, 1899

Mississippi River.—Steamboat *Brandywine* burned near Memphis; about 110 lives lost.....April 9, 1832

Steamer *Rob Roy* explodes near Columbia; about twenty lives lost.June 9, 1836

Steamer *Ben Sherrod*, racing with steamer *Prairie*, takes fire 30 miles below Natchez; 175 lives lost.....May 9, 1837

Steamer *Dubuque* explodes near Bloomington, Wis.; twenty-six lives lost Aug. 15, 1837

Steamer *Monmouth* collides with *Trenton*, in tow of steamer *Warren*, near Prophet Island, and sinks; of 490 emigrant Creek Indians, 234 perish....Oct. 29, 1837

Steamer *General Brown* explodes at Helena; sixty killed and injured Nov. 25, 1838

Steamer *Edna* collapses flues near mouth of Missouri; thirty-three lives lost June 28, 1842

Steamer *Eliza* strikes on snag 2 miles below mouth of the Ohio and sinks; thirty to forty lives lost....Oct. 13, 1842

Steamer *Clipper* bursts her boiler at Bayou Sara, La.; twenty killed Sept. 19, 1843

Steamer *Shepherdess* strikes a snag below St. Louis; twenty to thirty drowned Jan. 4, 1844

Steamers *De Soto* and *Buckeye* collide; the latter sinks and more than sixty persons are drowned.....Feb. 28, 1844

Steamer *Belle of Clarksville* run down by the *Louisiana* and sunk; more than thirty drowned.....Dec. 14, 1844

Steamer *Edward Bates* collapses two boiler flues; twenty-eight killed Aug. 12, 1848

Twenty-three steamboats with their cargoes burned at St. Louis May 17, 1849

Steamer *Louisiana* explodes at New Orleans; sixty killed, eighty injured, and twelve missing.....Nov. 15, 1849

Steamer *Anglo-Norman* explodes at New Orleans; seventy-five to 100 killed, wounded, or missing.....Dec. 13, 1850

Eight steamboats destroyed by fire at New Orleans; thirty-seven lives lost Feb. 4, 1854

Steamer *Caroline* burned at the mouth of the White River; forty-five lives lost March 5, 1854

Steamer *Pennsylvania* bursts her boiler 80 miles below Memphis; about 100 lives lost.....June 13, 1858

Steamer *Princess* explodes boiler and burns near Baton Rouge; twenty-five killed, thirty-five injured.....Feb. 27, 1859

Steamer *Ben. W. Lewis* bursts boiler at Cairo; fifty lives lost....June 24, 1860

Steamer *Miami* explodes boilers, burns, and sinks; 150 lives lost....Jan. 30, 1866

Steamer *Stonewall* burned below Cairo; 200 lives lost.....Oct. 27, 1869

Steamer *T. L. McGill* burned; fifty-eight lives lost.....Jan. 14, 1871

Steamer *H. R. Arthur* explodes; eighty-seven lives lost.....Jan. 28, 1871

Steamer *Oceanus* explodes; forty lives lost.....April 11, 1872

Steamer *George Wolfe* explodes; thirty lives lost.....Aug. 23, 1873

Steamer *Golden City* burned near Memphis; twenty lives lost....March 30, 1882

Steamer *Robert E. Lee* burned 30 miles below Vicksburg; twenty-one lives lost Sept. 30, 1882

Steamer *Yazoo* strikes a log 35-mile point above New Orleans, and sinks; nineteen lives lost.....March 4, 1883

Flues of steamer *La Mascotte* collapse and vessel burned near Crawford's Landing, Mo.; thirty-four lives lost Oct. 5, 1886

Steamer *Kate Adams* burned near Commerce Landing; thirty-three lives lost Dec. 24, 1888

Steamer *John H. Hanna* burned opposite Plaquemine, La.; twenty-two lives lost.....Dec. 24, 1888

Steamer *Corona* explodes; thirty-eight lives lost.....Oct. 3, 1889

Ohio and other American Rivers.—Steamer *Benjamin Franklin* explodes near Montgomery, Ala.; twenty-five to thirty killed and injured.....March 13, 1836

Boiler of steamer *Moselle* explodes soon after leaving her dock at Cincinnati; over 100 lives lost.....April 25, 1838

Steamer *Shamrock* bursts her boiler on the St. Lawrence River and sinks; sixty-eight lives lost.....July 9, 1842

Steamer *Lucy Walker* explodes three boilers simultaneously at New Albany, Ind.; fifty to sixty killed and about twenty wounded.....Oct. 23, 1844

Steamer *Swallow* is broken on a rock in the Hudson River, near Athens April 7, 1845

Steamer *Tuscaloosa,* 10 miles above Mobile, bursts two boilers; about twenty killed and many injured....Jan. 28, 1847

Brig *Carrick* wrecked in a gale in the St. Lawrence; 170 emigrants perish May 19, 1847

Steamer *Talisman* collides with the *Tempest* on the Ohio between Pittsburg and St. Louis; more than 100 lives lost Nov. 19, 1847

Boilers of steamer *Blue Ridge* on the Ohio River explode; thirty lives lost Jan. 8, 1848

Steamer *Orville St. Johns* burned near Montgomery, Ala.; thirty lives lost March 7, 1850

Steamboat *Henry Clay* burned on the Hudson River; over seventy lives lost July 27, 1852

Boiler of steamer *Reindeer* in the Hudson explodes; thirty-eight lives lost, twenty injured.....Sept. 4, 1852

Steamer *Reindeer* bursts a flue at Cannelton, Ind., Ohio River; fifty killed or injured.....March 14, 1854

Steamer *Montreal,* from Quebec to Montreal, burned; nearly 250 lives lost, mostly emigrants.....June 26, 1857

Steamer *Missouri* explodes her boilers on the Ohio; 100 lives lost Jan. 30, 1866

Steamer *Magnolia* explodes her boilers on the Ohio River; eighty lives lost March 18, 1868

Steamers *United States* and *America* collide in the Ohio River near Warsaw and burn; great loss of life..Dec. 4, 1868

Steamer *Wawasset* burned in the Potomac River; seventy-five lives lost Aug. 8, 1873

Steamer *Pat Rogers* burned on the Ohio; fifty lives lost.....July 26, 1874

Steam-yacht *Mamie* cut in two by steamer *Garland* on the Detroit River; sixteen lives lost.....July 22, 1880

Steamer *Victoria* capsized on Thames River, Canada; 200 drowned..May 24, 1881

Steamer *West Point* burned in York River, Va.; nineteen lives lost Dec. 26, 1881

Steamer *Sciota* wrecked in collision on the Ohio River; fifty-seven lives lost July 4, 1882

Steamer *W. H. Gardner* burned on the Tombigbee River, 3 miles below Gainesville, Ala.; twenty-one lives lost..March 1, 1887

NOTABLE WRECKS AND SHIPPING DISASTERS IN FOREIGN WATERS.

Atlantic Ocean, Mediterranean Sea, etc.—English ship *Jane and Margaret,* from Liverpool to New York, wrecked near the Isle of Man; over 200 lives lost February, 1837

Governor Fenner, from Liverpool to America, run down off Holyhead by the steamer *Nottingham,* out of Dublin; 122 lives lost.....Feb. 19, 1841

Emigrant ship *Edmund,* with nearly 200 passengers from Limerick to New York, wrecked off the western coast of Ireland; about 100 lives lost.....Nov. 12, 1850

Steamship *St. George,* from Liverpool to New York, with 121 emigrants and a crew of twenty-nine seamen, destroyed by fire at sea (the crew and seventy of the passengers saved by the American ship *Orlando* and conveyed to Havre) Dec. 24, 1852

British steamer *City of Glasgow* sails from Liverpool for Philadelphia with 450 passengers and is never heard from March, 1854

Steam emigrant ship *Austria,* from Hamburg to New York, burns in the middle of the Atlantic Ocean; of 538 persons on board only sixty-seven are saved Sept. 13, 1858

British steamship *City of Boston* sails from New York for Liverpool, Jan. 28, 1870; never since seen .....Feb. 11, 1870

See WRECKS, ATLANTIC OCEAN, etc., on preceding pages.

Atlantic steamer *Deutschland*, from Bremen to New York, during a gale, wrecked on sand-bank, the Kentish Knock, at mouth of the Thames; 157 lives lost (many emigrants).....Dec. 6, 1875

Bark *Ponema* collides with the steamship *State of Florida* about 1,200 miles from coast of Ireland; both vessels sink; only thirty-five out of 180 persons saved April 18, 1884

Wright, CARROLL DAVIDSON, statistician; born in Dunbarton, N. H., July 25, 1840; received an academic education; member of the Massachusetts Senate in 1872–73; chief of the bureau of statistics of labor for Massachusetts in 1873–88; United States commissioner of labor in 1885–1902; completed the 11th census of the United States in 1893–97; professor of statistics and social economics in the Columbian University in 1900; lecturer at Harvard, 1901; president of Clark University in 1902; and member and recorder of the anthracite strike commission in 1902. He wrote *The Factory System of the United States (United States Census Report for 1880, vol. ii.); The Relation of Political Economy to the Labor Question; History of Wages and Prices in Massachusetts, The Industrial Evolution of the U. S.; History of the United States census,* etc. He died Feb. 20, 1909.

Wright, ELIZUR, journalist; born in South Canaan, Conn., Feb. 12, 1804; graduated at Yale College in 1826; was Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy in Western Reserve College in 1829–33; and secretary of the American Anti-slavery Society in 1833. He was editor of *Human Rights* in 1834–35, and the *Anti-slavery Magazine* in 1837–38; *Massachusetts Abolitionist* in 1839; and *Daily Chronotype* in 1845; was commissioner of insurance for Massachusetts in 1858–66; wrote an introduction to Whittier's *Poems;* and *Savings Banks Life Insurance,* etc.; contributed to the *Atlantic Monthly;* and published several anti-slavery pamphlets. He died in Medford, Mass., Nov. 22, 1885.

Wright, FRANCES, reformer; born in Dundee, Scotland, Sept. 6, 1795; travelled in the United States in 1818–20 and again in 1825; and purchased in the latter year 2,000 acres of land in Tennessee, where she established a colony of emancipated slaves. She lectured extensively on slavery and established what were called "Fanny Wright" societies. She published *Views on Society and Manners in America,* etc. She died in Cincinnati, O., Dec. 14, 1852.

Wright, HENRIETTA CHRISTIAN, author; born in the United States; writes mostly for the young. Her publications include *Golden Fairy Series; Children's Stories of American Progress; Stories of the Great Scientists,* etc. She died in 1899. See DEPENDENT CHILDREN, CARE OF.

Wright, HORATIO GOUVERNEUR, military engineer; born in Clinton, Conn., March 6, 1820; graduated at West Point in 1842, remaining two years as assistant Professor of Engineering. He was made brigadier-general of volunteers in September, 1861, and major-general in July, 1862. He was chief engineer of Heintzelman's division at the battle of Bull Run, and in

HORATIO GOUVERNEUR WRIGHT.

the Port Royal expedition he commanded a brigade. In February, 1862, he was in the expedition that captured Fernandina, Fla., and commanded a division in the attack on Secessionville, S. C., in June, 1862. In July he was assigned to the Department of the Ohio, and commanded the 1st Division, 6th Corps, in the Army of the Potomac at Gettysburg. After General Sedgwick's death he was in command of the 6th Corps, which he led in the Richmond campaign until July, 1864, when he was sent to the defence of the national capital, and afterwards (August to December) was engaged in the Shenandoah campaign. He was wounded in the battle

of Cedar Creek; was in the final military operations which ended with the surrender of Lee. He was brevetted major-general, United States army, in March, 1865; promoted brigadier-general and chief of engineers June 30, 1879; and was retired March 6, 1884. He died in Washington, D. C., July 2, 1899.

Wright, JAMES; born in England; was a photographer for the British war office in the Crimean War; came to the United States in 1861, and during the Civil War served the United States in the same capacity. He died in Brooklyn, N. Y., Feb. 4, 1893.

Wright, SIR JAMES, colonial governor; born in Charleston, S. C., about 1714; was admitted to the bar and practised in his native city; was made lieutenant-governor and chief-justice of South Carolina, May 13, 1760; became royal governor of Georgia in 1764, and was the last representative of the King to administer the affairs of that colony. His policy was acceptable to the people until he tried to enforce the provisions of the Stamp Act. The English vessel *Speedwell* arrived at Savannah with the stamped paper, Dec. 5, 1766. The "Liberty Boys" endeavored to destroy this paper, but it was placed in Fort George, on Cockspur Island. Two years later the governor dismissed the Assembly after accusing it of insurrectionary conduct. In June, 1775, he tried to communicate with a number of British war-ships which had arrived at Tybee, but he was taken prisoner by Joseph Habersham. Later he escaped and reached the man-of-war *Scarborough*. Subsequently he returned to England, but in 1779, when the British held Savannah, he was ordered to resume his office. He permanently retired to England at the close of the war; was created a baronet in December, 1772. He died in London, England, Nov. 20, 1785.

Wright, JOSEPH ALBERT, governor; born in Washington, Pa., April 17, 1810; settled in Bloomington, Ind.; admitted to the bar in 1829 and began practice in Rockville, Ind.; member of Congress in 1843–45; governor of Indiana in 1849–57; minister to Prussia in 1857–61; and a United States Senator from March, 1862, to January, 1863. In the latter year he was a second time made minister to Prussia. He died in Berlin, Germany, May 11, 1867.

Wright, LUKE E., diplomatist; born in Tennessee 1847; attorney-general of Tennessee for eight years; member of the Philippine Commission 1900–04; civil governor of the Philippines 1904; governor-general of the Philippines 1905–06; U. S. ambassador to Japan 1906–07; Secretary of War 1908 in succession to W. H. Taft.

Wright, MARCUS JOSEPH, military officer; born in Purdy, Tenn., June 5, 1831; received a common school education; studied law and engaged in practice; served in the Confederate army during the Civil War; was lieutenant-colonel of the 154th Tennessee Infantry; promoted brigadier-general in 1862; and was wounded at the battle of Shiloh. He was author of *Life of Gen. Winfield Scott; Life of Gov. William Blount; History of McNairy County, Tenn.;* and about fifty biographies of Confederate generals; part author of *Memoirs of Robert E. Lee,* and *Library of American History;* and a contributor to various magazines.

Wright, REBECCA MCPHERSON, spy; born near Winchester, Va., Jan. 31, 1838. On Sept. 16, 1864, General Sheridan sent her a message which was carried in the mouth of a negro. It contained these words: "Can you inform me of the position of Early's forces, the number of divisions in his army, and the strength of all or any of them, and his probable or reported intentions? Have any more troops arrived from Richmond, or are any more coming or reported to be coming?" Upon the information received from her Sheridan planned the assault upon Winchester. She was appointed a clerk in the United States Treasury Department in 1868; and married William C. Bonsal in 1871.

Wright, SILAS, legislator; born in Amherst, Mass., May 24, 1795; began business life as a lawyer at Canton, N. Y., in 1819; became a member of the State Senate in 1823; was a Representative in Congress, 1827–29; advocated a protective tariff; was comptroller of the State of New York, 1829–33; United States Senator, 1833–44; supported Jackson in his war against the United States bank; opposed the extension of slavery; was chosen governor of New York in 1844, and at the

close of his term of office retired to private life, near Canton, N. Y., where he died, Aug. 27, 1847.

Wright, WILBUR, aeronaut; born near Milville, Ind., April 16, 1867; received his education in the public schools. With his brother, Orville, born in Dayton, Ohio, Aug. 19, 1871, and assisted by his younger sister, Katherine, he solved the problem of flying in a machine heavier than air. He died in Dayton, Ohio, May 30, 1912, of typhoid fever. It was in 1896 that the brothers began work on the problem of flying. Otto Lilienthal, the German experimenter, had just been killed. In the accounts of his death the Wrights read of papers he had written on the subject of aviation. These they bought and studied. They got into touch with Octave Chanute, the noted authority on aviation. He gave them the data he had compiled and referred them to other authorities.

Having absorbed the results of all these previous experiments, the young men began experimenting with box-kites. Their money gave out, but their sister, Katherine, a school teacher, lent them more. She also assisted them with their calculations and laboratory experiments.

After consulting the Weather Bureau at Washington, they selected the sand-hills near Kitty Hawk, N. C., where for three years they experimented, and in 1902 they actually built a flying-machine. On December 17, 1903, their first satisfactory completed flyer was ready. It had an 8-horse-power engine, and with its single passenger weighed 800 pounds. On its fourth departure from the ground it made 852 feet in fifty-nine seconds and landed safely. They stayed among the sand-hills and practised secretly and cautiously till they had fair control over the machine.

They returned to Dayton and built another aeroplane. With No. 2 they made flights over a secluded meadow near Dayton, so cautiously that few persons knew what was going on. On Sept. 20, 1904, they first flew in a complete circle. On Nov. 9th they made three miles on a motor-endurance test.

In the spring of 1905 they built their machine over again and continued experimenting. Not till September 26 were long flights attempted; the first was eleven miles. Ten days later they had stretched it to twenty-five. Then they stopped to avoid public notice.

Meanwhile the rumor of their achievements went abroad. A French emissary came to America in December, 1905, with the purpose of buying an option on the secret. The Wrights refused to show their machine, however, and the deal was not completed.

In January, 1907, they submitted a report to the Aero Club of New York which won that body's support. They did not reveal their secret, however. In May of

WILBUR WRIGHT.

that year the German authorities looked into the proposition, but they, too, had failed to be impressed to the point of making a purchase.

In the spring of 1908 Charles R. Flint came forward with the proposition to become the Wrights' backer in exploiting their invention. They accepted. The policy of secrecy was abandoned. Patents were taken out all over the world.

On Aug. 8, 1908, Wilbur Wright made his first flight in France. In the second week of September Orville Wright began his flights at Fort Myer, near Washington. While one brother was endangering the laurels of the French aviators, the other was meeting all the requirements of the United States government tests. On

Sept. 12th Orville stayed in the air one hour and twelve minutes. On Sept. 17th happened the accident that cost the life of Lieutenant Thomas E. Selfridge, of the United States army signal corps, and resulted in broken bones for Orville Wright, the first fatal flying-machine accident.

A syndicate known as the Weiller committee bought the French rights to the Wright flyer for $100,000 in October, 1908.

The Wright brothers received a medal and thanks from Congress, also a medal from the Smithsonian Institution, for their achievements.

In 1909 they formed a $1,000,000 corporation to manufacture their machines at Dayton. They instituted several suits to protect their patents, but in most particulars were unsuccessful.

Writs of Assistance. An illicit trade with the neutral ports of St. Thomas and Eustatius, and with the French islands—under flags of truce to the latter, granted by colonial governors, nominally for an exchange of prisoners, but really as mere covers for commercial transactions—was carried on for some time by the Northern colonies. Of this the English merchants complained, and Pitt issued strict orders for it to be stopped. It was too profitable to be easily suppressed. Francis Bernard, who was appointed governor of Massachusetts Aug. 4, 1760, attempted the strict enforcement of the laws against this trade. Strenuous opposition was aroused in Boston, and the custom-house officers there applied to the Superior Court to grant them writs of assistance, according to the English exchequer practice—that is, warrants to search, when and where they pleased, for smuggled goods, and to call in others to assist them. Thomas Hutchinson was the chief-justice, and favored the measure. The merchants employed Oxenbridge Thatcher and James Otis—the former a leading law practitioner and the latter a young barrister of brilliant talents—to oppose it. The people could not brook such a system of petty oppression, and there was much excitement. Their legality was questioned before a court held in the old Town Hall in Boston. The advocate for the crown (Mr. Gridley) argued that, as Parliament was the supreme legislature for the whole British realm and had authorized these writs, no subject had a right to complain. The fiery James Otis answered him with great power and effect. The fire of patriotism glowed in every sentence; and when he uttered the words, "To my dying day I will oppose, with all the power and faculties God has given me, all such instruments of slavery on one hand and of villainy on the other," he gave the keynote to the concerted action of the English-American colonies in opposing the obnoxious acts of the British Parliament. "Then," said John Adams, who heard Otis's speech, "the independence of the colonies was proclaimed." Very few writs of assistance were issued, and these were rendered ineffectual by popular opposition. See Otis, James.

Wu Ting-Fang, diplomatist; born in China; received a classical and English education in Canton; studied law in England in 1874–77. In 1897–1902 and 1907–09 he was minister to the United States; was recalled to become the minister of commerce. He was prominent in the establishment of the Chinese Republic in 1912. See Chinese-American Reciprocity.

Wyandot (modern **Wyandotte**) **Indians,** a tribe of the Iroquois family; originally named Tionontates or Dinondadies, and settled on the shores of Lake Huron, where they cultivated tobacco to such an extent that the French called them Tobacco Indians. After being nearly destroyed by the Iroquois they moved to Lake Superior, and subsequently, by reason of disasters in war, to Michilimackinac, Detroit, and Sandusky. In 1832 they sold their lands in Ohio to the United States government and removed to Kansas. In 1905 there were 378 Wyandottes at the agency in the present State of Oklahoma, and 455 in Canada. See Iroquois Confederacy, The.

Wyandotte Constitution. See Kansas.

Wyant, Alexander H., artist; born in Port Washington, O., Jan. 11, 1836; studied in Carlsruhe, Düsseldorf, and London; opened a studio in New York City in 1864; was elected an associate of the National Academy of Design in 1868, and an Academician in 1869. Among his pictures are *Staten Island from the Jersey Meadows; Scene on the Upper Susquehanna; Fort at New Bedford; A Midsummer Retreat; New England Landscape; Scene on the Upper Little Miami,* etc. He died in New York City, Nov. 29, 1892.

Wyatt, Sir Francis, governor; born in England, presumably in 1575; made governor of Virginia in 1621; brought with him a new constitution which allowed trial by jury, annual meetings of the Assembly subject to the call of the governor, and all former franchises and immunities. This constitution became the model for all later forms of government in the American colonies. He returned to England in 1642, and died in Bexley in 1644.

Wyeth, John Allan, surgeon; born in Marshall county, Ala., May 26, 1845; graduated at the University of Louisiana in 1869; assistant demonstrator of anatomy in 1873–74; and prosector to Mount Sinai Hospital, New York, in 1880–97. He organized and founded the New York Polyclinic Medical School and Hospital in 1882, the first post-graduate medical school in the United States; and was its professor of surgery and president. He wrote *Text-book on Surgery; Life of Gen. N. B. Forrest;* etc.

Wyllys, Samuel, military officer; born at Hartford, Jan. 15, 1739; graduated at Yale College in 1758; and in 1775 became lieutenant-colonel of Spencer's regiment. He commanded a regiment at the siege of Boston, was appointed colonel in the Continental army in January, 1776, and served with much reputation throughout the war. He succeeded his father as secretary of State of Connecticut, which post he resigned in 1809. His grandfather had also been secretary of state. The three held that office ninety-eight years in succession. He became a general of militia, and was a member of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences. He died in Hartford, Conn., June 9, 1823.

Wynne, Robert John, executive officer; born in New York, Nov. 18, 1851; was a telegrapher in 1870–80; Washington correspondent of the Cincinnati *Gazette* in 1880–92; private secretary to the Secretary of the Treasury in 1892–96; correspondent of the New York *Press* in 1896–1902; first assistant postmaster-general in 1902–04; postmaster-general in 1904–05; and consul-general in London, England, in 1905.

WYOMING

Wyoming (name a corruption of a Delaware Indian word, meaning "large plains" or "extensive meadows"). A State in the mountain division of the North American Union; bounded on the n. by Montana, e. by South Dakota and Nebraska, s. by Colorado and Utah, and w. by Utah, Idaho, and Montana; area, 97,914 square miles, of which 320 are water surface; extreme breadth, e. to w., 365 miles; extreme length, n. to s., 275 miles; number of counties, 14; capital, Cheyenne; State motto, "Equal Rights"; organized as a Territory, July 25, 1868; admitted into the Union as the forty-fourth State, July 10, 1890; population (1910), 145,965.

General Statistics.—Wyoming is best known as containing the greater part of the world-renowned Yellowstone National Park (see Parks, National) and for its extensive mining and stock-raising interests. In its record year in mineral productions (1907), the total output was valued at $10,671,574, of which coal represented $9,732,668. The first local production of coal was reported in 1865, and amounted to 800 short tons. Five years later, when the Union Pacific Railroad was completed, the production rose to about 50,000 tons. In the record year the output was 6,252,990 tons, and in the period of 1865–1908 the aggregate was 83,308,667. An estimate of the original coal supply of the State, by the United States Geological Survey, places Wyoming second to North Dakota, which is estimated to have contained originally 500,000,000,000 short tons. Wyoming's supply is estimated to have been 424,085,000,000 short tons, compared with which the above aggregate production appears insignificant and far from betokening a coal famine in that vicinity.

Domestic animals, poultry, and bees have a value of more than $65,580,000, an increase in value of over 67 per cent. in ten years, sheep ($29,649,000), cattle ($22,696,000), and horses ($12,426,000) leading. In 1910 the sheep of shearing age numbered 4,650,000 and yielded 36,037,500 pounds of washed and unwashed wool and 11,532,000 pounds of scoured wool, valued

at $6,342,600. Agricultural interests are showing a promising development. There are over 10,980 farms, containing 1,256,000 improved acres, representing in lands, buildings, and implements a value of $101,625,000, an increase in the value of lands and buildings of 263 per cent. in ten years. Ordinary farm crops have an annual value of about $15,000,000, hay and forage leading with $9,000,000. Manufacturing interests, although they have about doubled in all details in ten years, are still relatively unimportant, the capital investment and value of output being each slightly under $6,000,000, railroad cars and lumber and timber products taking the lead.

General business affairs are served by twenty-nine national banks, having $1,685,000 capital and resources of $18,593,013; forty-five State banks, with $1,047,300 capital and $6,403,940 resources; four loan and trust companies, with $45,000 capital and $703,854 assets; and three stock savings banks, with $135,000 capital and $703,854 assets.

Religious interests are promoted by 228 organizations, having 160 church edifices, 23,182 communicants or members, 13,472 Sunday-school scholars, and church property valued at $778,142, the strongest denominations numerically being the Roman Catholic, Latter-day Saints (Mormons), Methodist, Protestant Episcopal, Lutheran, Eastern Orthodox, and Baptist. The Protestant Episcopal and Roman Catholic Churches have each a bishop at Cheyenne.

The school age is 6–21; enrollment in the public schools, 23,182; average daily attendance, 16,595; value of public-school property, $1,048,840; total revenue, $657,931; total expenditure, $602,293. Higher education is provided by the University of Wyoming and its college of agriculture and the mechanic arts, at Laramie, and by twenty public high schools.

Government.—A bill was introduced in Congress in 1865 to provide a temporary government for the "Territory of Wyoming," but it was not till 1868 that Congress organized the Territory from parts of Dakota, Utah, and Idaho. In the mean time Cheyenne had been settled and given a city government, the first passenger train from Omaha had reached that point, and gold had been discovered on the sources of the Sweetwater River. After the organization of the Territory, the legislature gave women the right to vote and hold office (1869), and under this act the first grand jury composed of men and women was impanelled at Laramie (1870). A State constitution was ratified in 1889, and one of the first acts of the first State legislature was to adopt the Australian-ballot system (1890).

The executive authority is vested in a governor (annual salary, $4,000), secretary of state, treasurer, auditor, attorney-general, adjutant-general, superintendent of education, commissioner of taxation, State dairy, food, and oil commission, and department of immigration (the three last provided in 1907)—official terms, unless otherwise specified, four years. The legislature consists of a senate of twenty-seven members and a house of representatives of fifty-six members—terms of senators, four years; of representatives, two years; salary of each, $7 per diem; sessions, biennial; limit, forty days. The chief judicial authority is a supreme court, comprising a chief-justice and two associate justices. In 1911 the total bonded debt was $120,000; cash and securities in hand, $1,102,657; assessed valuation (1910), $188,560,916; tax rate, $2.67 per $1,000.

TERRITORIAL GOVERNORS.

	assumes office	
John A. Campbell	"	1869
John M. Thayer	"	1875
John M. Hoyt	"	1879
William Hale	"	1883
F. E. Warren	"	1885
Thomas Moonlight	"	Jan. 24, 1887
F. E. Warren	"	1889

STATE GOVERNORS.

F. E. Warren	inaugurated	Oct. 14, 1890
Amos W. Barber	acting	1892
John E. Osborne	inaugurated	1893
William A. Richards		1895
De Forest Richards		1899
Fenimore Chatterton, acting governor to Nov. 8,		1904
Bryant B. Brooks		1905
Joseph M. Carey		1911

Wyoming ranked forty-seventh in population among the States and Territories under the censuses of 1870, 1880, and 1890, and fiftieth under those of 1900 and 1910.

In the apportionment of representation in Congress, Wyoming was given one

member under the censuses of 1880, 1890, 1900, and 1910.

UNITED STATES SENATORS.

Name.	No. of Cong.	Term.
Francis E. Warren....	52d to 53d	1891 to 1893
Joseph M. Carey.....	52d " 54th	1891 " 1895
Vacant.....	53d	
Francis E. Warren....	54th to ——	1895 " ——
Clarence D. Clark....	54th " ——	1895 " ——

History.—The larger part of the present territory of the State was acquired from France in the Louisiana purchase of 1803, and the remainder was obtained from Mexico by the treaty of 1848. Although comparatively young in Statehood, Wyoming has quite a rich fund of historical reminiscence. Thus, there is evidence that Sieur de la Verendrye and his sons, from Canada, travelled the region as far south as the Wind River in 1743–44; John Colter wintered on the headquarters of Pryor's Fork in 1806, and in the following

STATE SEAL OF WYOMING.

year visited Shoshone Lake, crossed the Rocky Mountains to the head of Green River, and returned to Pryor's Fork; and Ezekiel Williams, a trapper, journeyed from the Yellowstone to the South Platte through Wyoming in 1807. In 1811 the first recorded expedition from the East, the Pacific Fur Company, on the way to Oregon under Wilson Price Hunt, passed through Wyoming, crossing Powder River Valley and Big Horn Mountains to the Wind River, thence to the Snake River. William H. Ashley, of the North American Fur Company, with 300 men, explored the Sweetwater and Green rivers in 1824; Capt. E. L. Bonneville led the first caravan, 110 trappers and twenty wagons, from the Platte through South Pass to the Green River in 1832; and William Sublette and Robert Campbell erected a fort on Laramie Fork, which they named Fort William, Fort Laramie since 1834.

The first emigrant train for Oregon and California crossed Wyoming in 1841; Fort Bridger was erected on Green River by James Bridger, a famous trapper, in 1842; Col. J. C. Frémont, with a government exploring expedition, ascended and named Frémont's Peak in 1842; and Mormon pioneers, led by Brigham Young, passed Fort Laramie on their way to Great Salt Lake through South Pass, June 1, 1847.

Though containing several large reservations of Indians, the Territory was comparatively free from Indian troubles till 1876, when the entire northern part was overrun with hostiles and the command of Gen. George A. Custer (*q. v.*) totally destroyed. The tribes then in the Territory were the Sioux, Crows, Arapahoes, Shoshones, and remnants of others, and it was not till after Gen. George Crook (*q. v.*) succeeded in bringing them all to peace (1877) that substantial settlement and the development of industrial interests were possible. When Wyoming was admitted as a State, the only Indians in it were the Arapahoes and Shoshones, probably 2,000 in all, who occupied the Wind River Reservation of 1,520,000 acres. They had become peaceful, and were making progress in education and agricultural pursuits. In 1891 the federal government arranged with these Indians for the cession to it of 1,100,000 acres for fifty-five cents per acre. In the spring of 1892 an attempt to rid the State of cattle-thieves led to such serious trouble that the governor was compelled to call to his aid United States troops.

To the scientist Wyoming is one of the most remarkable wonderlands in the world, having extensive areas replete with fossils of prehistoric ages.

Wyoming Valley, Civil War in the. At the close of the Revolution settlers from Connecticut began to pour into the

Wyoming Valley, in Pennsylvania, under the auspices of the SUSQUEHANNA SETTLERS (*q. v.*). Pennsylvania denied the claim of Connecticut to the valley, and asked Congress to appoint a commission to hear the claimants by representatives, and determine the questions in dispute. The commissioners, sitting at Trenton, decided against the claims of Connecticut. The settlers, who believed the decision covered only the question of jurisdiction, were content, but the authorities of Pennsylvania claimed a right to the soil, and would not confirm the land-titles of the inhabitants received from the Susquehanna Company. Not only so, but measures were taken to expel the Connecticut people from the valley. The most unjust and oppressive measures were employed by civil and military officers there.

These the people endured for a while; but when, in July, 1784, two young men were killed by soldiers in the employ of Pennsylvania, the people rose in retaliation, led by Col. John Franklin, of Connecticut. Col. John Armstrong was sent (August) with a considerable force to restore order in the valley. All these movements were directed by the Pennsylvania Assembly, contrary to the general sentiment of the people. The hearts of the people of Wyoming were strengthened by the sympathy of good men. The number of settlers increased, and, defying the soldiers under Armstrong, cultivated their lands, and for two years waited for justice. In 1786 they procured the formation of their district into a new county, which they named Luzerne. Col. Timothy Pickering was sent by the authorities of Pennsylvania to harmonize affairs in that county. He succeeded in part, but restless spirits opposed him, and he became a victim to cruel ill-treatment. Quiet was restored (1788), but disputes about land-titles in the Wyoming Valley continued for nearly fifteen years afterwards.

Wyoming Valley Massacre. Among the Connecticut settlers in the Wyoming Valley were some Scotch and Dutch families from the Mohawk Valley. About thirty of them, suspected of being Tories, were arrested at the beginning of the war, and sent to Connecticut for trial. They were released for want of evidence, returned to the Mohawk, joined the Tory partisan corps of Johnson and Butler, and waited for a chance of vengeance on their persecutors. In June, 1778, a motley host of Tories and Indians, under the general command of Colonel Butler, gathered at Tioga, on the Susquehanna River. They entered the Wyoming Valley July 2. Among them were the vengeful Scotch and Dutch. Butler made his headquarters at the fortified house of Wintermoot, a Tory. Two full companies, out of 3,000 inhabitants, had been raised in the valley for the Continental army, and its only defenders were old men, brave women, tender youths, and a handful of trained soldiers. These, 400 in number, Col. Zebulon Butler, assisted by Colonel Denison, Lieutenant-colonel Dorrance, and Major Garratt, led up the valley (July 3) to surprise the

WINTERMOOT'S

invaders at Wintermoot's. They were terribly smitten by Tories and savages in a sharp fight, and more than one-half were killed. Very soon 225 scalps were in the hands of the Indians.

A few of the smitten ones escaped, with Colonel Denison, to Forty Fort, just above Wilkesbarre, and Butler himself fled to Fort Wilkesbarre. In the former, families for miles around had taken shelter. The night that followed was full of horrors. Prisoners were tortured and murdered, and the fugitives were in continual

AN INCIDENT OF THE MASSACRE.

fear of death. Unexpectedly to all, the leaders of the invaders offered humane terms of surrender to the inmates of Forty Fort, and they retired to their homes in fancied security, while Colonel Butler left the valley. In disobedience of his commands, the Indians spread over the valley before sunset (July 4), and when night fell they began the horrid work of plundering, murdering, and burning. The blaze of twenty dwellings lighted up the valley and the neighboring mountains at one time. In almost every house and every field the murderous work was performed. When the moon rose, the terrified survivors of the massacre fled to the Wilkesbarre Mountains and to the morasses of the Pocono beyond. In that dreadful wilderness called the "Shades of Death" many women and children perished. Those who survived made their way eastward until they reached their native homes in Connecticut. Five miles and a half above Wilkesbarre, near the pleasant village of Troy, stands a monument, constructed of hewn blocks of granite, erected in commemoration of the slain in the battle who were buried at that spot. It is 62½ feet in height. Upon two marble tablets are the names of those who fell, as far as could be ascertained, and also of those who were in the battle and survived. This monument was not completed until more than sixty years after the sad event. See Campbell's *Gertrude of the Wyoming*.

THE WYOMING MONUMENT.

Wythe, GEORGE, signer of the Declaration of Independence; born in Elizabeth City county, Va., in 1726; was educated at the College of William and Mary, after receiving home instruction. Losing his parents in his youth, and having con-

trol of a large fortune, he led a dissipated and extravagant life until he was thirty years of age, when his conduct entirely changed. He studied law, and was admitted to the bar in 1757, when he soon became very eminent in his profession for learning, industry, and eloquence. For many years he was a prominent member of the Virginia House of Burgesses. In 1764, as chairman of the committee appointed by the House of Burgesses, he reported a petition to the King, a memorial to the House of Lords, and a protest to the House of Commons, against the proposed Stamp Act, which were so bold in their tone that the House feared they were treasonable and refused to accept them until they were materially modified. He was Professor of Law from 1779 to 1789 in the College of William and Mary. He was an influential member of Congress from 1775 to 1777, when he was chosen speaker of the Virginia House of Delegates, and was appointed judge of the State high court of chancery. On the reorganization of the court of equity, he was made sole chancellor, and held the office over twenty years. Later he emancipated his slaves, and gave them means for subsistence. He died in Richmond, Va., June 8, 1806.

X.

X Y Z Letters, popular designation of a correspondence, made public in 1798, which nearly resulted in the United States declaring war against France. Louis XVI. had been overthrown in France, and a republic established in charge of the Directory and Council. The French envoys to America, Genet, Adet, and Fouchet, annoyed Presidents Washington and Adams exceedingly by their arrogance. Then the French Directory authorized French war-vessels to seize American merchantmen and "detain them for examination." Fully 1,000 vessels, carrying the United States flag, had been thus stopped in their course when Adams appointed Pinckney, Marshall, and Gerry as a commission to visit France and negotiate a treaty that would save American vessels from further annoyance. The commission was met in France by three unofficial agents, who told the Americans that the Directory would not listen to them unless suitable bribes, amounting to $240,000, were given; and that, if the commission were received, France would expect a loan from the United States, as French finances were then at a very low ebb. The American envoys indignantly rejected these proposals and were ordered out of France. They at once published their report in the United States, but, instead of giving the names of the three French agents, they were styled X, Y, and Z, and the correspondence took its name from this fact. The disgraceful action of France aroused the whole country. "Millions for defence, not one cent for tribute" became a proverbial phrase, having been originally used by Charles C. Pinckney, who, after being expelled from France, was sent back as one of the three envoys. Congress at once ordered an increase in the army and navy. Before the new ships were ready hostilities had actually begun. Commodore Truxton, in the United States frigate *Constellation*, captured a French frigate, the *Insurgente*, in West Indian waters, Feb. 9, 1799, and fought the French frigate *Vengeance*, which, however, escaped during the night. Over 300 American merchant vessels were authorized as privateers. The result was that France yielded. Talleyrand, the very minister who had dictated the insults, and whose secretary had demanded the bribe of 1,200,000 francs, now disavowed any connection with the French agents, X, Y, Z, and by order of Napoleon, who had assumed the charge of French affairs, pledged his government to receive any minister the United States might send. Without consulting his cabinet, Adams took the responsibility of again sending ambassadors. These men were well received, and orders were at once issued to French cruisers to refrain from molesting vessels of the United States, and a cordial understanding between the two countries began, which terminated in the cession of Louisiana two years later.

Y.

Yachting. The contest for the *America's* Cup, under the last challenge by Sir Thomas Lipton (*q. v.*), took place in New York Bay in the autumn of 1903, between the cup defender, *Reliance,* and the challenger, *Shamrock III.* The first contest, Aug. 22d, was off Sandy Hook, over a course fifteen miles to leeward and return; time of *Reliance,* 3:31:17; *Shamrock,* 3:41:17. The second contest, Aug. 25, was over a triangular course ten miles to leg; time of *Reliance,* 3:14:54; *Shamrock,* 3:18:10. The third contest, Sept. 3, was over a course fifteen miles to windward and return; time of *Reliance,* 4:28:04; *Shamrock,* did not finish. For previous contests for this trophy, see "America's" Cup.

Yakima Indians, members of an important Shahaptian tribe, formerly living on both sides of the Columbia River, Washington. The total Indian population on the Yakima reservation in 1909 was 1,900.

Yale, Elihu, philanthropist; born in New Haven, Conn., April 5, 1649; was educated in England. About 1678 he went to the East Indies, where he remained twenty years and amassed a large estate. He was governor of Fort George there from 1687 to 1692. Mr. Yale married a native of the East Indies, by whom he had three daughters. He passed his latter days in England, where he was made governor of the East India Company and a fellow of the Royal Society. He remembered his native country with affection, and when the school that grew into a college was founded he gave donations to it amounting in the aggregate to over $3,000. It was given the name of Yale in his honor. He died in London, July 8, 1721.

Yale University, the third of the higher institutions of learning established in the English-American colonies. Such an institution was contemplated by the planters soon after the founding of the New Haven colony, but their means were too feeble, and the project was abandoned for a time. It was revived in 1698, and the following year ten of the principal Connecticut Congregational clergymen were made trustees by the charter, empowering them to found a college where they saw fit, and to perpetuate their body. These held a meeting at New Haven and organized an association of eleven ministers, including a rector, who was trustee "*ex-officio.*" Not long afterwards they met,

YALE COLLEGE, 1793.

when each minister gave some books for a library, saying, "I give these books for founding a college in Connecticut." The General Assembly granted a charter (Oct.

SEAL OF YALE UNIVERSITY.

9, 1701), and on Nov. 11 the trustees met at Saybrook, which they had selected as the place for the college, and elected Rev. Abraham Pierson rector. The first college building was begun soon afterwards. It was finished in 1718, and at the "commencement" in September of that year it was named Yale College, in compliment to Elihu Yale, its most eminent benefactor. See YALE, ELIHU.

This name was confined to that college building, but in 1745, when a new charter was given, it was applied to the whole institution. Its laws were printed in Latin in 1748, and this was the first book printed in New Haven. The government of the college was administered by the rector, or president, and ten fellows, all of whom were clergymen, until 1792, when the governor and lieutenant-governor of the State and six senior assistants of the council were made fellows *ex-officio*, making the corporation consist of eighteen members besides the president. In 1871–72 the legislature of Connecticut passed a law providing for the substitution of six graduates of the college for the six councillors, to be selected by the alumni. In

THE OLD FENCE AT YALE.

student was Jacob Hemmingway, who entered in March, 1702, and was alone for six months, when the number of students was increased to eight, and a tutor was chosen. The site being inconvenient, in 1716 it was voted to establish the school permanently at New Haven, and the first 1887 the college became a university. The university has a scientific school (Sheffield), museum of natural history, picture-gallery, extensive mineral and geological cabinets, and a library containing over 258,000 volumes, exclusive of pamphlets. In Yale University particular at-

OSBORN HALL, YALE UNIVERSITY.

tention is given to the Oriental languages, and its curriculum embraces nearly the whole circle of science and literature. The bicentennial of the university was celebrated Oct. 21–23, 1901.

The university has total resources, exclusive of equipment, art, book, and other collections, of approximately $24,000,000; endowment funds, $12,532,160; volumes in the libraries, 600,000; average number of faculty, 406; average student attendance, 3,400; number of graduates, 26,313, of whom 15,985 were living in 1911. Its presidents have been Abraham Pierson, 1701–07; Timothy Cutler, 1719–22; Elisha Williams, 1726–39; Thomas Clap, 1739–66; Naphtali Daggett, 1766–77; Ezra Stiles, 1777–95; Timothy Dwight, 1795–1817; Jeremiah Day, 1817–46; Theodore D. Woolsey, 1846–71; Noah Porter, 1871–86; Timothy Dwight, 1886–99; Arthur T. Hadley, 1899– ——.

Yanan Indians. The entire tribe of 3,000 massacred in California in 1864.

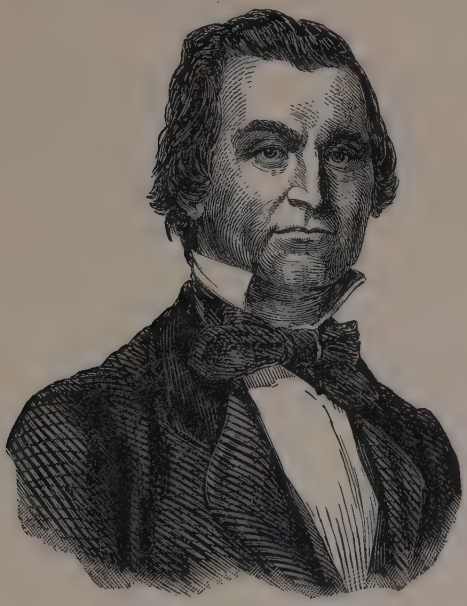
Yancey, WILLIAM LOWNDES, legislator; born in Ogeechee Shoals, Ga., Aug. 10, 1814; went to Alabama in youth, where he studied law; served in both branches of the Alabama legislature. From 1844 to 1847 he was a member of Congress. A fervid and influential speaker, he was an influential politician in the Democratic party, and became a leader of the extreme Pro-slavery party. As early as 1858 he advised the organization of committees of safety all over the cotton-growing States. His speeches did much to bring about the Civil War. Mr. Yancey reported

the Alabama ordinance of secession to the convention at Montgomery, which was adopted Jan. 14, 1861. In February following he was appointed a Confederate commissioner to the governments of Europe to obtain the recognition of the Confederate States. He entered the Confederate Congress early in 1862, in which he served until his death, near Montgomery, Ala., July 28, 1863.

Yancey's letter on the admission of Kansas under the Lecompton constitution:

MONTGOMERY COUNTY, ALA.,
May 24, 1858.

Neither am I in favor of making up an issue of condemnation of our representatives in Congress on account of their



WILLIAM LOWNDES YANCEY.

support of "the conference bill." Such an issue would at once divide and distract that noble band of Southern Rights men who believe in secession, and have ever been ready to exercise it—upon whom the South can alone rely in her greatest need—who though not perhaps a majority, yet by their earnest action—by their intellectual ascendency—their known political probity—the fairness and intensity of their faith have, since 1851, succeeded in giving direction and control to public opinion at the South. Many of the choicest spirits of that class of Southern men are now in Congress, having voted for that conference bill, under a sincere misapprehension, in my opinion, as to the true design and character of that measure. I would deeply deplore making an issue with such men — an issue which, whatever might be the mere personal result, could not but inflict a deep and lasting wound on the cause of the South. The only set of men in our midst who are now lending their energies to produce such an issue, in my opinion, are the Union-loving fogies, who expect to rise upon the ruins resulting from a quarrel among the States Rights men.

But I am for a free discussion of the merits of that measure. I am for a daily reckoning of the position of the South. I think it prudent to know our latitude and longitude, daily — to heave the lead hourly, to ascertain our soundings — and if the ship of State has been wrongly directed she should be put upon the right track at once. In this view I candidly say that in my opinion Quitman and Bonham were right in voting against the "conference bill."

By the treaty with France, by which the United States acquired the territory of which Kansas is a part, the government guaranteed in the third article that "the inhabitants of the ceded territory shall be incorporated in the Union of the United States, and admitted as soon as possible, according to the principles of the federal Constitution," etc.

By the Kansas act, nineteenth section, it was provided that a temporary territorial government should be erected—"and when admitted as a State or States, the said Territory, or any portion of the same, shall be received into the Union, with or

without slavery, as their constitution may prescribe at the time of their admission." The thirty-second section provided that the people thereof shall be left "perfectly free to form and regulate their domestic institutions in their own way—subject only to the Constitution of the United States."

The National Democratic Cincinnati Convention of June, 1856, "Resolved, that we recognize the right of the people of all the Territories, including Kansas and Nebraska, acting through the legally and fairly expressed will of a majority of actual residents, and whenever the number of their inhabitants justifies it, to form a constitution with or without slavery, and be admitted into the Union upon terms of perfect equality with the other States."

The first clause, section 3, article iv., of the federal Constitution prescribes that "new States may be admitted by Congress into this Union."

These, I believe, are all the rules which a Democrat would look to in coming to a conclusion on this question; and it seems to me clear that when construed together, he must come to the conclusion, first, that by treaty the inhabitants of Kansas have *a right* to be admitted into the Union "as soon as possible, according to the principles of the federal Constitution," and therefore that Congress has bound itself to exercise its general constitutional discretion as to admitting new States in favor of an admission of Kansas.

Second, that the Kansas act has transferred to the people of Kansas the right "to form and regulate their domestic institutions in their own way, subject only to the Constitution of the United States," and to be admitted as a State.

Third, that the National Democratic Convention has explicitly recognized this *right* to admission. The Democracy and the opposition both conceded the question as to numbers, the only issues being, were, first, as to whether the Lecompton constitution expressed the will of the people; and, second, as to the admission of a slave State in any event.

The Democracy framed a bill in the Senate to admit Kansas. It passed that body, and was defeated in the House by a combination of black Republicans, of Douglas Democrats, and a few South Americans.

The Kansas conference bill was then submitted and passed. The Democracy, combined with a few South Americans, and a portion of the Douglas Democrats, carried it through. That bill was, in my opinion, based on this fundamental error —that Congress had a right to refuse to admit Kansas as a State, unless Kansas would enter into a contract with the general government, whereby, in consideration of certain land grants, the new State would release certain powers which are specified in the following proviso:

"The foregoing propositions herein offered are on the condition that said State of Kansas shall never interfere with the primary disposal of the lands of the United States, or with any regulation which Congress may find necessary for securing the title in said soil to *bona fide* purchasers thereof; and that no tax shall be imposed on lands belonging to the United States, and that in no case shall non-resident proprietors be taxed higher than residents. Sixth, and that said State shall never tax the lands or property of the United States in that State."

The leading press in Alabama which advocates that bill said it was necessary to make these propositions a condition precedent to admission, because otherwise "the right to tax and dispose of the public domain would be wholly in the hands and at the mercy of the State, if she chose to exercise it."—[*Confederation.*]

One of the ablest supporters of that bill in the Senate says: "The consequences of admitting a State without a recognition precedent of the rights of the United States to the public domain are, in my opinion, the transfer of the useful with the eminent domain to the people of the State thus admitted without reservation." —[*Hon. Jeff. Davis.*]

Another prominent advocate of that bill said in the Senate, in speaking of the bill and the Kansas constitution: "We do not alter that; we accept that part of your proposition, and we give you the ordinary grant of land, but we will not give you the extra 17,000,000 acres that you claim. If they will not agree to this, what is the consequence? The bargain is at an end,

of course the constitution fails, the ordinary grant fails, and she is in a territorial condition."—[*Hon. Robert Toombs.*]

These extracts show the principles upon which the conference bill rests, as defined by its friends.

Now, as I have shown that Kansas is entitled to admission "as soon as possible consistent with the principles of the federal Constitution," it follows that the principles above quoted as ground for her rejection, unless she accepted the proposition of Congress to be valid, must be "in accordance with the principles of the federal Constitution." If they are not, then the conference bill is fundamentally an error.

I think that I shall be able to show that it is a fundamental error, by the decision of the Supreme Court of the United States.

The lands in the Territory belong to the general government, as trustee for the States. What is called the *eminent domain*, is vested in the United States "for the purposes of temporary government" alone. When the Territory becomes a State, the new State succeeds at once to the rights of eminent domain — and nothing remains to the United States but the public lands. These principles are not new. They have been declared to be correct by the Supreme Court of the United States, in Pollard's Lessee *v.* Hagan *et al.*, 3 Howard's Rep. In that case the court say:

"We think a proper examination of this subject will show that the United States never held any municipal sovereignty, jurisdiction, or right of soil, in and to the Territory of which Alabama or any of the new States were framed, except for temporary purposes, and to execute the trusts created by the acts of the Virginia and Georgia legislatures, and the deeds of the cession executed by them to the United States, and the trusts created by the treaty with France, of April 30, 1803, ceding Louisiana." This decision then places the Territories, as far as this principle is involved, all on the same footing, and the principle applicable to Alabama is therefore applicable to Kansas. The Supreme Court then say further: "When Alabama was admitted into the Union on an equal footing with the original States she succeeded to all the rights of sovereignty, jurisdiction, and eminent domain which Georgia possessed at the date of the cession, except so far as this right was diminished by the public lands remaining in possession and under control of the United States, for the temporary purposes provided for in the deed of cession. Nothing remained to the United States according to the terms of the agreement and the legislative acts connected with it but the public lands. And if an express stipulation had been inserted in the agreement granting the municipal right of sovereignty and eminent domain to the United States, such stipulation would have been void and inoperative; because the United States have no constitutional capacity to exercise municipal jurisdiction, sovereignty, or eminent domain within the limits of a State or elsewhere, except in cases in which it is expressly granted" (by the federal Constitution).

In the opinion of the court, then, it seems that neither an act of Congress requiring the assent of Kansas [nor an acceptance of that requirement by Kansas] to a disavowal of any right to the eminent domain over the public lands, would operate to confer on Congress any rights incident to the eminent domain, for such would be "void and inoperative." The lands belong to the United States. The sovereign municipal power over them belongs to the States; and no act of Congress, or assent of Kansas, can alter this state of things.

Let us apply these principles to the conference bill. The first and second of the conditions precedent required by Congress, it is now clear, are "void and inoperative" in the opinion of the Supreme Court, because Kansas had no right in the public lands, and therefore could no more interfere with their sale by their owner than she could with a sale of his lands by an individual citizen.

The fourth condition precedent is of the same character, the Constitution of the United States forbidding a State to tax the property of a non-resident higher than similar property of a resident. See case of Wiley *v.* Parmer, 14 Alabama Reports.

These questions have all been adjudicated; and the courts have jurisdiction

over them, and the Constitution of the United States prevails over any State enactment or even constitutional provision on the subject.

These views were relied upon by Congress when she admitted California, a free-soil State, and at the same time rejected her land ordinance; and on these principles the Senate Kansas bill was based. Why were they so suddenly departed from in the conference bill?

The remaining conditions relate to the taxing powers of the State.

No one contends that Congress can alter a constitutional power to tax, in a State constitution. The original thirteen States had that power, and were not required to concede it before admission; and Kansas had a right to admission upon an equal footing with the old States. Suppose Kansas should say to the general government: "I do not choose to yield my sovereign right to tax property within my borders for any quantity of land—I therefore will make no contract with you." Will it be pretended that Congress could keep Kansas out of the Union on that account? If it is so contended, I demand the clause in the Constitution giving it that power. Congress may require that the Constitution shall be republican—Congress may require that her boundaries be reasonable; but where does Congress get the power to restrict exercise of that highest attribute of sovereignty — the power to tax property within the limits of a new State? But, it is replied, we claim no such power for Congress; we only claim that unless Kansas yields the right, she shall not be admitted. This yields the question that Congress has no right to force the State to restrict its taxing power, but claims that Congress may refuse admission of the State unless it is restricted! This is whipping the devil around the stump. It is using one power of Congress for the purpose of getting the exercise of another which does not belong to it. But I deny that Congress can make this a ground of refusal of admission—because the treaty with France obtained the pledge of Congress to admit the inhabitants of the new Territory "as soon as possible according to the principles of the federal Constitution." The principles of that Constitution are that the powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution nor prohibited by it to the States are *reserved to the States respectively,* or to the people." The power to tax land within its borders is a "reserved right," and any attempt by Congress to force a grant of such a right by denying the State admission unless she yields it, in the face of that treaty stipulation, is in opposition to the spirit and "the principles of the federal Constitution."

It is said, however, that Kansas asked too much land and Congress should not have yielded to that request. I agree to this. But the acceptance or rejection of the land ordinance and the admission of the State are two entirely distinct measures. The land ordinance and the Constitution were two distinct matters—in no way dependent on each other—for the State may refuse to accept of any donation of land from the general government and not yield one of her sovereign rights. The new State was entitled to admission, but had no right to any more land than Congress should choose to give her. The State had a right to be in the Union, with or without land; and Congress, on just principles, was in duty bound to admit her, but might say to her, We reject your application for land and make another proposition, which the State could accept or reject. But Congress had no right to say, Your admission shall depend on your agreeing to our land proposition. Here is the vice of the conference bill, in a constitutional and legal view. Congress refused to the new State its undoubted right of admission, and in order to its enjoyment of that right demanded of the State the restriction of another of its rights.

As a measure of policy, in my opinion, the conference bill was a bad one. The object of the free-soil opposition was to obtain a chance, through the vote of the people of Kansas, to destroy the Lecompton pro-slavery constitution. The object of the South was to force an issue with the North on the admission of a slave State. This was the legitimate issue arising under and designed by repeal of the Missouri Compromise. The South had, in every State, pledged itself to meet all the consequences of such issue.

Far better had the issue been met. The South had done its duty in using all its

exertions to bring Kansas into the Union "in accordance with the principles of the Constitution." She had done it, knowing that the new State would be represented by free-soil Senators and Representatives. She had nobly performed her duty, without counting the cost. Why should she have hazarded her own unity, and compromised her position by further effort? General Davis answers and says, by this bill "the country was relieved from an issue which, had it been presented as threatened, our honor, our safety, our respect for our ancestors, and our regard for our posterity would have required the South to meet at whatever sacrifice." General Davis may be right, but the fact is that the North laughs at us, and we stand, not exactly a scorn unto ourselves, but certainly without any cause of congratulation at the result.

What has been the effect? To divide the South—to depress the spirit of its people—to abate their confidence in their chosen leaders—to cause them to believe that they have lost all the substantial benefits which were expected to be realized *by the country* from the result of the canvass of 1856—to create distrust and dissension among them.

They were prepared for any result attendant upon forcing the naked, simple issue of the Kansas question—they were not prepared for its unfortunate denouement.

Respectfully your fellow-citizen,
W. L. YANCEY.

Yankee, a term popularly applied to citizens of the United States, and especially to those of New England birth. There have been several theories advanced as to the origin of this word. According to Thierry, it was a corruption of Jankin, a diminutive of John, which was a nickname given by the Dutch colonists of New York to their neighbors in the Connecticut settlements. Dr. William Gordon, who wrote a history of the Revolutionary War, first published in 1789, had another theory. He said that it was a cant word in Cambridge, Mass., as early as 1713, used to denote especial excellence, as a yankee good horse, yankee good cider, etc. He supposed that it was originally a by-word in the college, and, being taken by the students into other parts of the country, gradually obtained general currency in New England, and at length came to be taken up in other parts of the country, and applied to New-Englanders as a term of slight reproach. Still another origin is given by Aubury, an English writer, who says: "It is derived from a Cherokee word, *eankle*, which signifies coward and slave. This epithet was bestowed on the inhabitants of New England by the Virginians for not assisting them in a war with the Cherokees, and they have always been held in derision by it." But the most probable theory is that advanced by Mr. Heckewelder, that the Indians, in endeavoring to pronounce the word English, or Anglais, made it Yengees, or Yangees, and thus originated the term. There is no doubt that the name was given by the Indians to the English colonists; from them it was adopted by the British, who applied it generally to New-Englanders only. Europeans subsequently applied it to all natives of the United States, and during the Civil War the Southerners alluded to all inhabitants of the Northern States by the epithet, but it should properly be confined solely to native New-Englanders.

Yankee Doodle, a popular air, the origin of which is involved in obscurity. It seems to be older than the United States government. It is said to be the tune of an old English nursery-song called *Lucy Locket*, which was current in the time of Charles I. In New England in colonial times it was known as *Lydia Fisher's Jig.* Among other verses of the song was this:

"Lucy Locket lost her pocket,
Lydia Fisher found it;
Not a bit of money in it,
Only binding round it."

A song composed in derision of Cromwell by a loyal poet commenced with

"Nankey Doodle came in town,
Riding on a pony,
With a feather in his hat
Upon a macaroni.

A "doodle" is defined in the old English dictionaries as "a sorry, trifling fellow," and this tune was applied to Cromwell in that sense by the Cavaliers. A "macaroni" was a knot in which the feather was fastened. In a satirical poem

accompanying a caricature of William Pitt in 1766, in which he appears on stilts, the following verse occurs:

"Stamp Act! le diable! dat is de job, sir:
Dat is de Stiltman's nob, sir,
To be America's nabob, sir,
Doodle, noodle, do.

Kossuth, when in the United States, said that when Hungarians heard the tune they recognized it as an old national dance of their own.

Did *Yankee Doodle* come from Central Asia with the great migrations? A secretary of the American legation at Madrid says a Spanish professor of music told him that *Yankee Doodle* resembled the ancient sword-dance of St. Sebastian. Did the Moors bring it into Spain many centuries ago? A Brunswick gentleman told Dr. Ritter, Professor of Music at Vassar College, that the air is that of a nursery-song traditional in the Duchy of Brunswick. A surgeon in the British army, who was with the provincial troops under Johnson at the head of Lake George, being impressed with the uncouth appearance of the provincial soldiers, composed a song to the air, which he called *Yankey*, instead of *Nankey, Doodle,* and commended it to the motley soldiers as "very elegant." They adopted it as good martial music, and it became very popular. The air seems to have been known in the British army, for it is recorded that when, in 1768, British troops arrived in Boston Harbor "the *Yankee Doodle* tune" (says a writer of that time) "was the capital piece in the band of music" at Castle William. The change in the spelling of the word "Yankey" was not yet made. Trumbull, in his *McFingal,* uses the original orthography.

While the British were yet in Boston, after the arrival of Washington at Cambridge in the summer of 1775, some poet among them wrote the following piece in derision of the New England troops. It is the original *Yankee Doodle* song:

"Father and I went down to camp,
Along with Captain Goodwin,
Where we *see* the men and boys
As thick as hasty-*puddin'*.

"There was *Captain* Washington
Upon a *slapping* stallion,
A giving orders to his men:
I *guess* there was a million.

"And then the feathers on his hat,
They looked so *tarnal fine*,
I wanted *pockily* to get,
To give to my Jemima.

"And then they had a *swampin'* gun,
As large as log of maple,
On a *deuced* little cart—
A load for father's cattle.

"And every time they fired it off
It took a horn of powder;
It made a noise like father's gun,
Only a *nation* louder.

"I went as near to it myself
As Jacob's *underpinnin'*,
And father went *as near agin*—
I thought the *deuce* was in him.

"Cousin Simon grew so bold,
I thought he would have cocked it;
It scared me so, I shrinkéd off,
And hung by father's pocket.

"And Captain Davis had a gun,
He *kind* a clapped his hand on't,
And stuck a crookéd stabbing-iron
Upon the little end on't.

"And there I *see* a pumpkin-shell
As big as mother's basin,
And every time they touched it off
They scampered *like the nation*.

"And there I see a little keg,
Its heads were made of leather:
They knocked upon't with little sticks,
To call the folks together.

"And then they'd *fife away like fun*,
And play on *cornstalk* fiddles;
And some had *ribbons* red as blood,
All wound about their middles.

"The troopers, too, would gallop up
And fire right in our faces;
It scared me almost half to death
To see them run such races.

"Old Uncle Sam *come* then to change
Some pancakes and some onions
For *'lasses cakes*, to carry home
To give his wife and young ones.

"I *see* another *snarl* of men
A digging graves, they told me,
So *tarnal* long, so *tarnal* deep,
They *'tended* they should hold me.

"It scared me so, I *hooked* it off,
Nor slept, as I remember,
Nor turned about till I got home,
Locked up in mother's chamber."

Yankee Doodle appears to be "a child of thirty-six fathers." It has been suggested by a witty lady that perhaps *Yankee Doodle* "composed itself," as the Germans say of folk-songs. It is ac

cepted as our national air, and is in positive contrast in spirit to the stately *God Save the King*, of old England. The tune is so associated with the patriotic deeds of Americans that it inspires a love of country in the heart of every citizen.

Yankton Indians, one of the seven primary divisions of the Dakotas. Most of the Indians at the Yankton School in South Dakota are Yanktons, and in 1909 numbered 1,739. There were also about 100 at the Fort Totten School in North Dakota, a few at the Crow Creek School in South Dakota, and a few others at the Lower Brulé School, also in South Dakota. The so-called Yanktons on the Fort Peck reservation, in Montana, are really Yanktonais.

Yates, RICHARD, war governor; born in Warsaw, Ky., Jan. 18, 1818. In early youth he went to Illinois; graduated at Illinois College; studied law, and became eminent in the profession. He was often a member of the State legislature. He

RICHARD YATES.

was a member of Congress from 1851 to 1855, and governor of Illinois from 1861 to 1865—a most active "war" governor during that exciting period. The legislature of Illinois met on Jan. 7, 1861. The governor's message to them was a patriotic appeal to his people; and he summed up what he believed to be the public sentiment of Illinois, in the words of President Jackson's toast, given thirty years before: "Our Federal Union: it must be preserved." Governor Yates was elected to the United States Senate in 1865, and served therein six years. He died in St. Louis, Mo., Nov. 27, 1873. His son. Richard, was elected governor of Illinois for the term 1901–5.

Yates, ROBERT, jurist; born in Schenectady, N. Y., Jan. 27, 1738; was admitted to the bar in 1760, and became eminent in his profession. During the controversies preceding the Revolutionary War he wrote several excellent essays upon the great topics of the time. He was a prominent member of the committee of safety at Albany; also chairman of the committee on military operations (1776–77), member of the Provincial Congress of New York, and of the convention that framed the first State constitution. He was judge of the Supreme Court of New York from 1777 to 1790, and chief-justice from 1790 to 1798. Judge Yates was a member of the convention that framed the national Constitution, but left the convention before its close and opposed the instrument then adopted. He kept notes of the debates while he was in the convention. He was one of the commissioners to treat with Massachusetts and Connecticut respecting boundaries and to settle difficulties between New York and Vermont. He died in Albany, N. Y., Sept. 9, 1801.

Yazoo Lands. The first legislature of Georgia that met after the adoption of the national Constitution undertook to sell out to three private companies the preemption right to tracts of wild land beyond the Chattahoochee River. Five million acres were allotted to the South Carolina Yazoo Company for $66,964, 7,000,000 acres to the Virginia Yazoo Company for $93,742, and 3,500,000 acres to the Tennessee Yazoo Company for $16,876. This movement was in response to a prevailing spirit of land speculation stimulated by extensive migrations of people from the Atlantic seaboard to new lands in consequence of pecuniary embarrassments, a result of the Revolutionary War. In 1790 the national government, by treaty, gave much of the lands south and west of the Oconee River to the Creek Indians. This offended the Georgians, and the more violent among them proposed open resistance to the government and to settle on those lands in spite of the treaty. Sales of the lands were made

to a Georgia Yazoo Company formed subsequent to the treaty. The sales in 1796 had amounted to $500,000, a sum totally inadequate for the purchase of 35,500,000 acres. There were evidences of great corruption on the part of the Georgia legislature, and in 1796 Congress revoked the sales as unconstitutional and void, and directed the repayment to the several companies of the amount of money which they had paid to the State, if called for within eight months.

The original act authorizing the sale was burned in front of the State-house, and all records relating to it were expunged. In 1798 the constitution of Georgia was revised, and in certain provisions, having reference expressly to the Yazoo lands, an effectual check was put to these speculations. In the organization of Territories west of the Chattahoochee the subject of the Yazoo lands presented some grave questions, for there were still claimants under the original grants who were importunate. They claimed in the aggregate about $8,000,000 as an equivalent for a relinquishment of their rights. In 1804 the New England Mississippi Company, successor, by purchase, to the Georgia Yazoo Company, appeared as claimant, by its agent, and solicited a settlement. It appeared that a great share of those original grants had passed into the hands of New England men. Their claims were violently opposed, partly on political and sectional grounds. The subject was before Congress several years, many of the Southern members, led by the implacable John Randolph, defeating every proposed measure for making an honorable settlement with the New England purchasers. The claimants turned from Congress to the courts. In 1810 the Supreme Court of the United States decided that the act of the Georgia legislature in repudiating the original grants of the Yazoo lands was unconstitutional and void, being in violation of a solemn contract. This decision and other considerations caused Congress to make a tardy settlement with the claimants in the spring of 1814. Such was the end of a speculation out of which Southern grantees made splendid fortunes, but which proved very unprofitable to Northern speculators.

Yazoo River Fleet. General Herron was sent, July 12, 1863, up the Yazoo River with a considerable force in light-draught steamboats to destroy a Con-

GUNBOATS ASCENDING THE YAZOO RIVER

federate fleet lying at Yazoo City. The transports were convoyed by the armored gunboat *De Kalb*. When they approached the town the garrison and vessels fled up the river, and were pursued. When the *De Kalb* was abreast the town she was sunk by the explosion of a torpedo. Herron's cavalry landed and pursued the vessels up the shore, destroying a greater portion of them. The remainder were sunk or burned by the Confederates. Herron captured 300 prisoners, six heavy guns, some small-arms, 800 horses, and 2,000 bales of cotton.

Yeamans, Sir John, colonial governor; born in Bristol, England, about 1605. In 1655 he went from Barbadoes and settled in Clarendon county, or South Carolina, and first introduced negro slaves there. He was made governor, and at first he ruled with mildness and justice, but, becoming violent and tyrannical, he was removed from office in 1674, and returned to England. He died in Barbados, West Indies, about 1676. See South Carolina.

Yeardly, Sir George, colonial governor; born in England about 1580; was governor of Virginia several times between 1616 and 1625; and first introduced representative government in Virginia. He died in England in November, 1627. See Virginia.

Yellow Fever. The first recorded outbreak of yellow fever occurred in the West Indies in 1647, and since that time it has been recurring at regular intervals in an epidemic form, and gradually extending its range; but it is endemic in certain localities, and notably so in the islands of St. Thomas and Santo Domingo.

In 1878 a board of experts, consisting of 12 medical men and a sanitary engineer, with Surgeon-General Woodworth as president, was appointed by the Health Committees of the Senate and House of Representatives of the Congress of the United States to investigate the yellow-fever epidemic, and they came to the following conclusions: (1) Yellow fever is a specific disease, due to a specific poison which has not been chemically or microscopically demonstrated, nor in any way made evident to the human senses; it is material and particulate, and endowed with the vital properties of growth and reproduction; the disease is not malarial, and malarial influences do not contribute toward its dissemination or mortality to any greater extent than to other epidemic diseases; a concurrence of local conditions seems to be necessary to the evolution of the disease, but what these are we have no positive knowledge. (2) Yellow fever is a disease of singular local attachments, often prevailing in a very small section of a city, with remarkable indifference to topographical and social surroundings; while atmospheric air is the usual medium by which it is conveyed, it has been in no instance established that the disease has been carried to any considerable distance by atmospheric currents, or by any modes or vehicles of conveyance other than those connected with human traffic and travel; the period of incubation varies from two to five days; the fever is unknown in Asia; the white race is most susceptible to its influence and furnishes the highest ratio of deaths. (3) Yellow fever is a disease of warm climates and of warm seasons; it is destroyed easily by exposure to air, by frost, and by chemical disinfectants, when they can be adequately used; and one attack confers immunity from a second. (4) The disease was unknown to the inhabitants of the Eastern Hemisphere till after the discovery of America by Columbus, and the islands of the West Indies are its home; it has never made its appearance on the great continent of Asia, or in Australia, or in any of the islands of the Pacific Ocean, or on the Pacific coast of the American continent; and outside the West Indies the disease is an exotic. (5) The fever has invaded the United States in 88 different years, in 77 of which there is evidence of importation, and in 71 of these 77 the evidence points to the West Indies; that, as a rule, very nearly without exception, yellow fever has always appeared in some of our seaports before it has made its appearance anywhere in the interior of the country; the disease is not indigenous to the United States, and it travels by the lines of human intercourse, no instance of communication having occurred in shorter time than would have sufficed for a man to have made the same journey.

Yellow Jack, a nickname for Yellow Fever (*q. v.*). Also the flag displayed

from lazarettos, naval hospitals, and vessels in quarantine.

Yellow Tavern. On May 9, 1864, Sheridan eluded Lee and, reaching the Virginia Central Railroad, tore up ten miles of track, wrecked the locomotives, cars, stations, and supplies; and soon after, in like fashion, the road from Richmond to Fredericksburg was broken up. Marching towards Richmond, within six miles of which, at Yellow Tavern, Sheridan encountered Stuart, who was prompt and bold in his defence, a hard battle ensued, in which, while the skill and gallantry were equal, the Federal superiority in numbers told powerfully. The Confederates were defeated, Stuart himself being among the slain, a loss to the South hardly less than that of Stonewall Jackson.

Yellowstone National Park. See PARKS, NATIONAL.

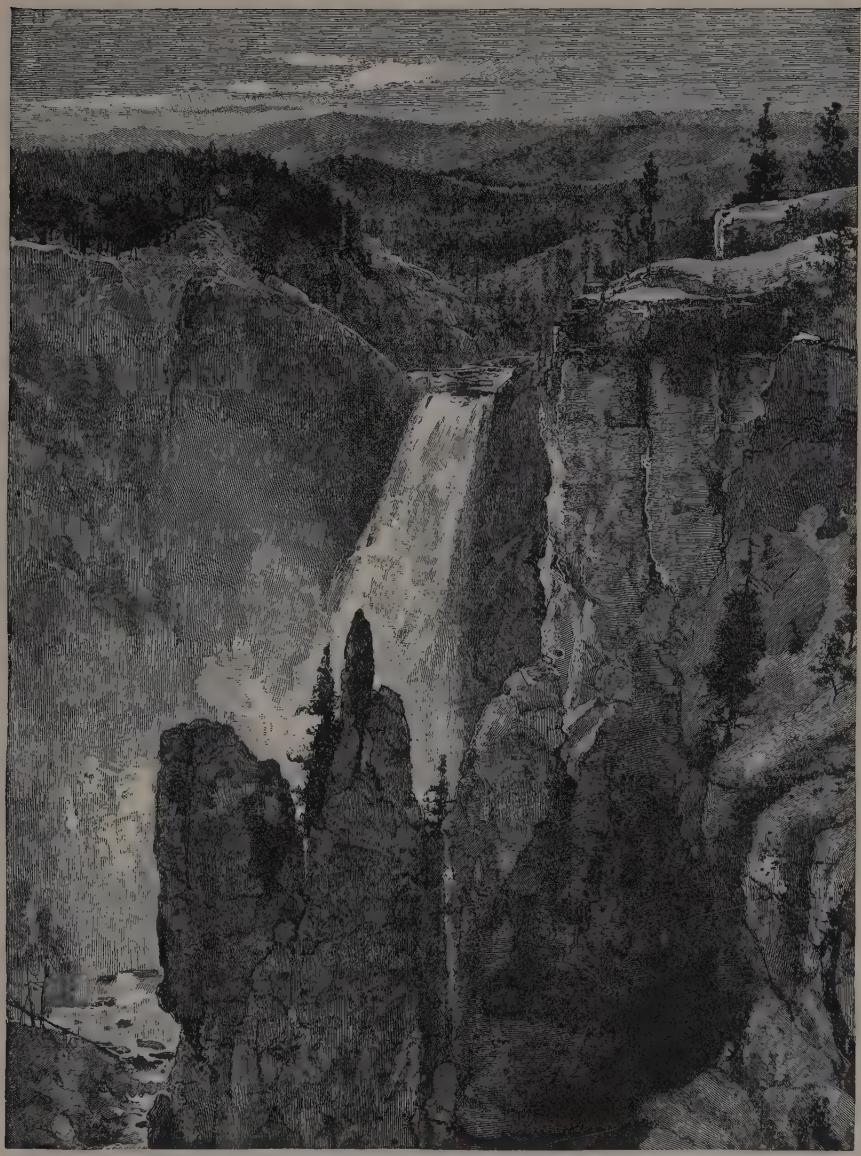
Yemassee War. In 1715 the Yemassee Indians, who were settled in the southern part of South Carolina, were led, partly by unfriendly treatment at the hands of English traders and partly by the instigation of the Spaniards, to take up arms against the province. The invasion was finally repelled by the colonists themselves, with some help from Virginia and North Carolina; but several hundred settlers were massacred, and the proprietors of the colony gave no substantial protection. Exasperated by the negligence of the proprietors, the colonists in 1716 presented through their agent a memorial asking the intervention of the crown.

Yeo, SIR JAMES LUCAS, naval officer; born in Southampton, England, in 1782; was an active but very cautious officer. Just after the declaration of war (1812) a Federalist newspaper charged Captain Porter with cruelly treating an English seaman on board the *Essex* who refused to fight against his countrymen, pleading, among other reasons, that if caught he would be hung as a deserter from the royal navy. This story reached Sir James, then a commander on the West India Station, and he sent by a paroled prisoner a message to Porter, inviting the *Essex* to combat with his vessel (the *Southampton*), saying he "would be glad to have a *tête-à-tête* anywhere between the capes of the Delaware and the Havana, when he would have the pleasure to break his own [Porter's] sword over his d——d head, and put him down forward in irons." The challenge was acepted in more decorous terms, but the *tête-à-tête* never came off. Sir James was too cautious. He commanded the British naval forces on Lake Ontario in 1813–14. He died off the coast of Africa in 1819.

JAMES LUCAS YEO.

Yerkes, CHARLES TYSON, capitalist; born in Philadelphia, Pa., June 25, 1837; was engaged as exchange broker in 1858–61, and as banker in 1861–86. He failed in 1871, but recovered his fortune in a few years; was prominent in street-railway operations in Philadelphia and Chicago; engaged in constructing a system of underground railroads in London, England; and gave the University of Chicago the great telescope bearing his name. He died in New York City, Dec. 29, 1905.

Yonkers, a city in Westchester county, N. Y., adjoining New York City. The place received its name in 1788; was incorporated as a village in 1855 and as a city in 1872; and is the seat of the



THE FALLS OF THE YELLOWSTONE.

Philipse Manor, erected in 1752, and now the city hall; "Greystone," the suburban residence of Samuel J. Tilden; the Hebrew Home for the Aged and Infirm; and the Leake and Watts Orphan Home. Pop. (1910), 79,803.

York, a town and port of entry in York county, Me.; on the York River and Cape Neddick harbors; 9 miles northeast of Portsmouth. It was settled about 1624 under the name of Agamenticus, on a portion of the territory granted to Sir

Ferdinando Gorges and John Mason by the Plymouth council in 1622. On April 10, 1641, it was given a city charter and government by Sir Ferdinando under the name of Georgeana, and it was thus the first English city on the continent of America. In 1652 it was organized as a town under the name of York, from the city of that name in England. From 1716 to 1735 it was the shire town of Yorkshire county, which included the whole province of Maine; from 1735 to 1760 shire town with Falmouth (now Portland) of the whole province; and from 1760 to 1800 shire town of York county. In 1802 Alfred was made a shire town with York, and continued so till 1832, when all the courts were removed to Alfred. Population in 1900, 2,668.

York (Canada). See TORONTO.

York, JAMES, DUKE OF, born in St. James's Palace, London, England, Oct. 14,

JAMES, DUKE OF YORK.

1633; son of Charles I.; became lord high admiral on the accession of his brother Charles to the throne in 1660. On March 12, 1664, King Charles II. granted to James, under a patent bearing the royal seal, a territory in America which included all the lands and rivers from the west side of the Connecticut River to the east side of the Delaware River. Its inland boundary was a line from the head of the Connecticut River to the source of the Hudson, thence to the head of the Mohawk branch of the Hudson, and thence to the east of Delaware Bay. It also embraced Long Island and the adjacent islands, including Martha's Vineyard and Nantucket; also the "territory of Pemaquid," in Maine. This granted territory embraced all of New Netherland and a part of Connecticut, which had been affirmed to other English proprietors by the charter of 1662. The duke detached four ships from the royal navy, bearing 450 regular troops, for the service of taking possession of his domain. Col. Richard Nicolls commanded the expedition. Stuyvesant was compelled to surrender (see STUYVESANT, PETER), and the name of the territory was changed to New York. Very soon commissioners appointed by the governments of New York and Connecticut to confer about the boundary between the two colonies agreed, for the sake of peace and good-fellowship, that the territory of New York should not extend farther eastward than along a line 20 miles from the Hudson River, and that remains the boundary to this day. In 1673 the Dutch again became possessors of New York, but the following year it was returned to England by treaty. It was decided that these political changes had cancelled the Duke of York's title to the domain, and a new one, with boundaries defined as in the first grant, was issued, June 29, 1674, but the line above mentioned was fixed upon as the eastern limit of the province of New York.

In 1665 a meeting was held at Hempstead, L. I. (Feb. 28), at which thirty-four delegates assembled—two representatives of each of the English and Dutch towns on Long Island and two in Westchester. Some of them had been members of Stuyvesant's last General Assembly of New Netherland the previous year. The meeting had been called by Governor Nicolls to "settle good and known laws" in their government for the future, and receive their "best advice and information." The governor laid before the delegates a body of general laws, which had been chiefly compiled from statutes then in force in New England, with more toleration in matters of religion. The delegates were not satisfied with many of them, and several amendments were made; but when they asked to be allowed to choose their own magistrates, the governor exhibited instructions from the Duke of York, his master, wherein the choice of "officers of justice was solely to be made by the governor"; and he told them decidedly that if they would have a greater share in the government than he could give them, they must go to the King for it. The delegates found that they were not popular representatives to make laws, but were mere agents to accept those already prepared for them. They had merely exchanged the despotism of Stuyvesant for English despotism. The New York code adopted by that meeting was arranged in alphabetical order of subjects and published, and is generally known as the Duke's Laws. The Duke of York became King, under the title of James II. in 1685. He died in St. Germain, Sept. 6, 1701. See CONNECTICUT; JAMES II.; NEW NETHERLAND; NEW YORK.

Yorktown, SIEGE OF. The allied armies joined Lafayette at Williamsburg, Va., Sept. 25, 1781, and on the 27th there was a besieging army there of 16,000 men, under the chief command of Washington, assisted by Rochambeau. The British force, about half as numerous, were mostly behind intrenchments at Yorktown. On the arrival of Washington and Rochambeau at Williamsburg they proceeded to the *Ville de Paris*, De Grasse's flag-ship, to congratulate the admiral on his victory over Graves on the 5th, and to make specific arrangements for the future. Preparations for the siege were immediately begun. The allied armies marched from Williamsburg (Sept. 28), driving in the British outposts as they approached Yorktown, and taking possession of abandoned works. The allies formed a semicircular line about 2 miles from the British intrenchments, each wing resting on the

ROUTE OF WASHINGTON'S ARMY FROM THE HUDSON TO YORKTOWN.

York River, and on the 30th the place was completely invested. The British at Gloucester, opposite, were imprisoned by French dragoons under the Duke de Lauzun, Virginia militia, led by General Weedon, and 800 French marines. Only once did the imprisoned troops attempt to escape from that point. Tarleton's legion sallied out, but were soon driven back by Lauzun's cavalry, who made Tarleton's horse a prisoner and came near capturing his owner.

In the besieging lines before Yorktown the French troops occupied the left, the West India troops of St. Simon being on the extreme flank. The Americans were on the right; and the French artillery, with the quarters of the two commanders, occupied the centre. The American artillery, commanded by General Knox, was with the right. The fleet of De Grasse was in Lynn Haven Bay to beat off any vessels that might attempt to relieve Cornwallis. On the night of Oct. 6 a heavy ordnance was brought up from the French ships, and trenches were begun at 600 yards from the British works. The first parallel was completed before the morning of the 7th, under the direction of General Lincoln; and on the afternoon of the 9th several batteries and redoubts were finished, and a general discharge of heavy guns was opened by the Americans on the right. Early on the morning of the 10th the French opened several batteries on the left. That evening the same troops hurled red-hot balls upon British vessels in the river, which caused the destruction by fire of several of them—one a 44-gun ship.

The allies began the second parallel on the night of the 11th, which the British did not discover until daylight came, when they brought several heavy guns to bear upon the diggers. On the 14th it was determined to storm two of the redoubts which were most annoying, as they commanded the trenches. One on the right, near the York River, was garrisoned by forty-five men; the other, on the left, was manned by about 120 men. The capture of the former was intrusted to Americans led by Lieut.-Col. Alexander Hamilton, and that of the latter to French grenadiers led by Count Deuxponts. At a given signal Hamilton advanced in two columns—one led by Major Fish, the other by Lieutenant-Colonel Gimat, Lafayette's aide; while Lieut.-Col. John Laurens, with eighty men, proceeded to turn the redoubt to intercept a retreat of the garrison. So agile and furious was the assault that

the redoubt was carried in a few minutes, with little loss on either side. Laurens was among the first to enter the redoubt, and make the commander, Major Campbell, a prisoner. The life of every man who ceased to resist was spared.

commander-in-chief saw both redoubts in possession of his troops he turned and said to Knox, "The work is done, and well done." That night both redoubts were included in the second parallel. The situation of Cornwallis was now critical.

PLAN OF THE SIEGE OF YORKTOWN.

Meanwhile the French, after a severe struggle, in which they lost about 100 men in killed and wounded, captured the other redoubt. Washington, with Knox and some others, had watched the movements with intense anxiety, and when the

He was surrounded by a superior force, his works were crumbling, and he saw that when the second parallel of the besiegers should be completed and the cannon on their batteries mounted his post at Yorktown would become untenable, and

BRITISH OFFICERS RECEIVING NEWS OF WASHINGTON'S APPROACH.

he resolved to attempt an escape by abandoning the place, his baggage, and his sick, cross the York River, disperse the allies who environed Gloucester, and by rapid marches gain the forks of the Rappahannock and Potomac, and, forcing his way by weight of numbers through Maryland and Pennsylvania, join Clinton at New York.

Boats for the passage of the river were prepared and a part of the troops passed over, when a furious storm suddenly arose and made any further attempts to cross too hazardous to be undertaken. The troops were brought back, and the earl lost hope. After that the bombardment of his lines was continuous, severe, and destructive, and on the 17th he offered to make terms for surrender. On the following day Lieutenant-Colonel Laurens and Viscount de Noailles (a kinsman of Madame Lafayette), as commissioners of the allies, met Lieutenant-Colonel Dundas and Major Ross, of the British army, at the house of the Widow Moore to arrange terms for capitulation. They were made similar to those demanded of Lincoln at Charleston eighteen months before. The capitulation was duly signed, Oct. 19, 1781, and late on the afternoon of the same day Cornwallis, his army, and public property were surrendered to the allies.

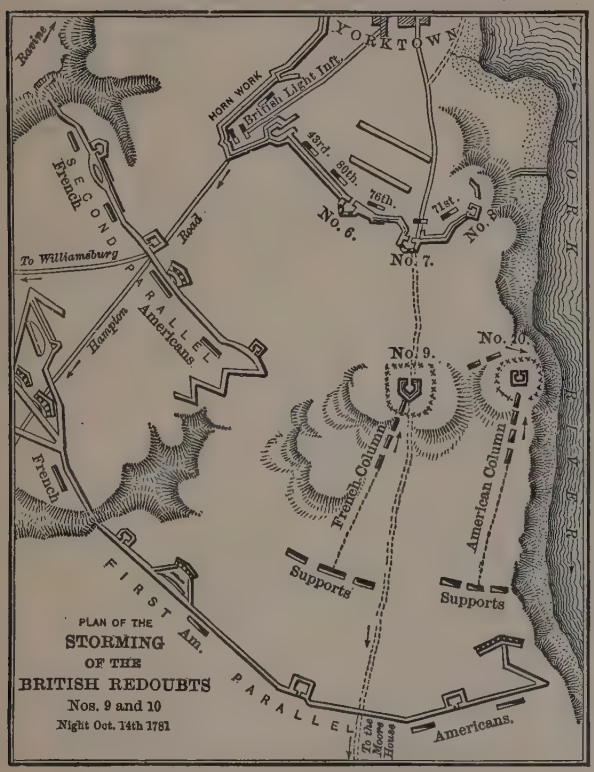
The delivery of the colors of the several British regiments at Yorktown, twenty-eight in number, was performed in this wise: twenty-eight British captains, each bearing a flag in a case, were drawn up in line. Opposite to these were twenty-eignt American sergeants in a line to receive them. Colonel Hamilton, who had the direction of the movement, appointed an ensign to conduct the ceremony. When that officer gave the order for the British captains to advance two paces and deliver up their colors, and the American sergeants to advance two paces to receive

THE SURRENDER OF CORNWALLIS AT YORKTOWN

them, the former hesitated, and gave as a reason that they were unwilling to surrender their flags to non-commissioned officers. Hamilton, who was at a distance, observed the hesitation, and rode up to inquire the cause. On being informed, he willingly spared the feelings of the vanquished captains, and ordered the ensign to receive them himself and then deliver them to the sergeants.

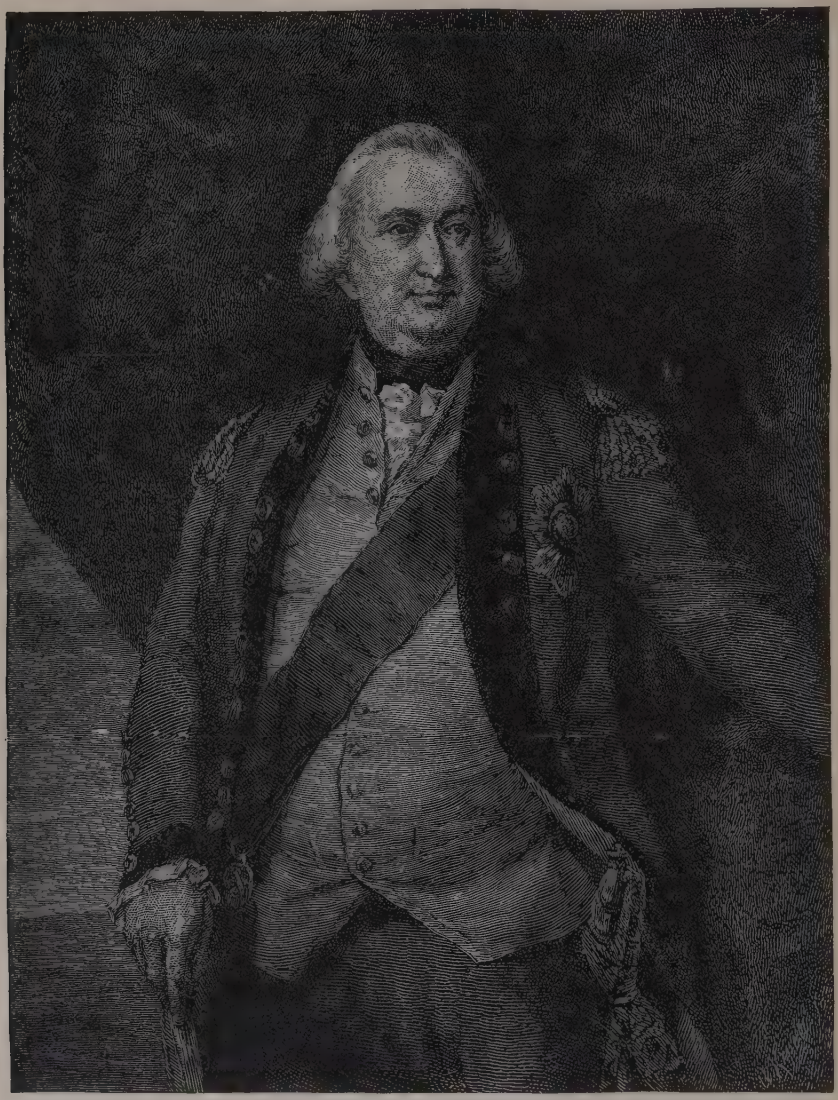
LYNN HAVEN BAY.

For the siege of Yorktown the French provided thirty-seven ships-of-the-line, and the Americans nine. The Americans furnished 9,000 land troops (of whom 5,500 were regulars), and the French 7,000. Among the prisoners were two battalions of Anspachers, amounting to 1,027 men, and two regiments of Hessians, numbering 875. The flag of the Anspachers was given to Washington by the Congress.



The news of the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown spread great joy throughout the colonies, especially at Philadelphia, the seat of the national government. Washington sent Lieutenant-Colonel Tilghman to Congress with the news. He rode express to Philadelphia to carry the despatches of the chief announcing the joyful event. He entered the city at midnight, Oct. 23, and knocked so violently at the door of Thomas McKean, the president of Congress, that a watchman was disposed to arrest him. Soon the glad tidings spread over the city. The watchman, proclaiming the hour and giv-

ing the usual cry, "All's well," added, "and Cornwallis is taken!" Thousands of citizens rushed from their beds, half dressed, and filled the streets. The old State-house bell that had clearly proclaimed independence, now rang out tones of gladness. Lights were seen moving in every house. The first blush of morning was greeted with the booming of cannon, and at an early hour the Congress assembled and with quick-beating hearts heard Charles Thompson read the despatch from Washington. At its conclusion it was resolved to go in a body to the



LORD CORNWALLIS.

Lutheran church, at 2 P.M., and "return thanks to the Almighty God for crowning the allied armies of the United States and France with success." A week later that body voted the thanks of the nation and appropriate honors to Washington, Rochambeau, and De Grasse, and their respective officers and men; and appointed a day for a general thanksgiving and prayer throughout the Union on account of God's signal favors to the struggling patriots. Everywhere legislative bodies, executive, councils, city corporations, and private societies presented congratulatory addresses to the commanding generals and their officers. The Duke de Lauzun bore the glad tidings of victory to the Court at Versailles.

THE LUTHERAN CHURCH IN PHILADELPHIA.

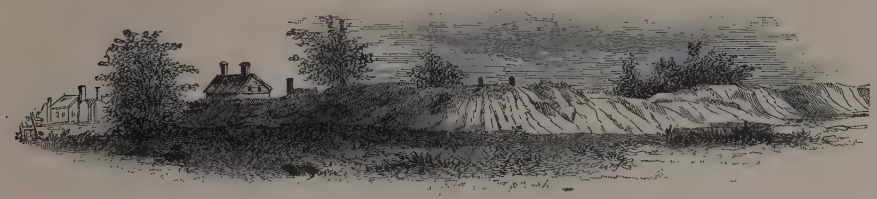
The following is the full text of the articles of capitulation:

Copy of the articles of capitulation settled between his Excellency General Washington, commander-in-chief of the combined forces of America and France; his Excellency the Count de Rochambeau, lieutenant-general of the armies of the King of France, great cross of the royal and military order of St. Louis, commanding the auxiliary troops of his most Christian Majesty in America; and his Excellency the Count de Grasse, lieutenant-general of the naval armies of his most Christian Majesty, commander-in-chief of the naval army of France in the Chesapeake on the one part: and the right honorable Earl Cornwallis, lieutenant-general of his Britannic Majesty's forces, commanding the garrisons of York and Gloucester; and Thomas Symonds, Esquire, commanding his Britannic Majesty's naval forces in York River, in Virginia, on the other part.

Article 1. The garrisons of York & Gloucester, including the officers and seamen in his Britannic Majesty's ships, as well as other mariners to surrender themselves prisoners of war to the combined forces of America and France. The land troops to remain prisoners to the United States; the navy to the naval army of his most Christian Majesty.

Granted.

Art. 2. The artillery. guns, accoutre-

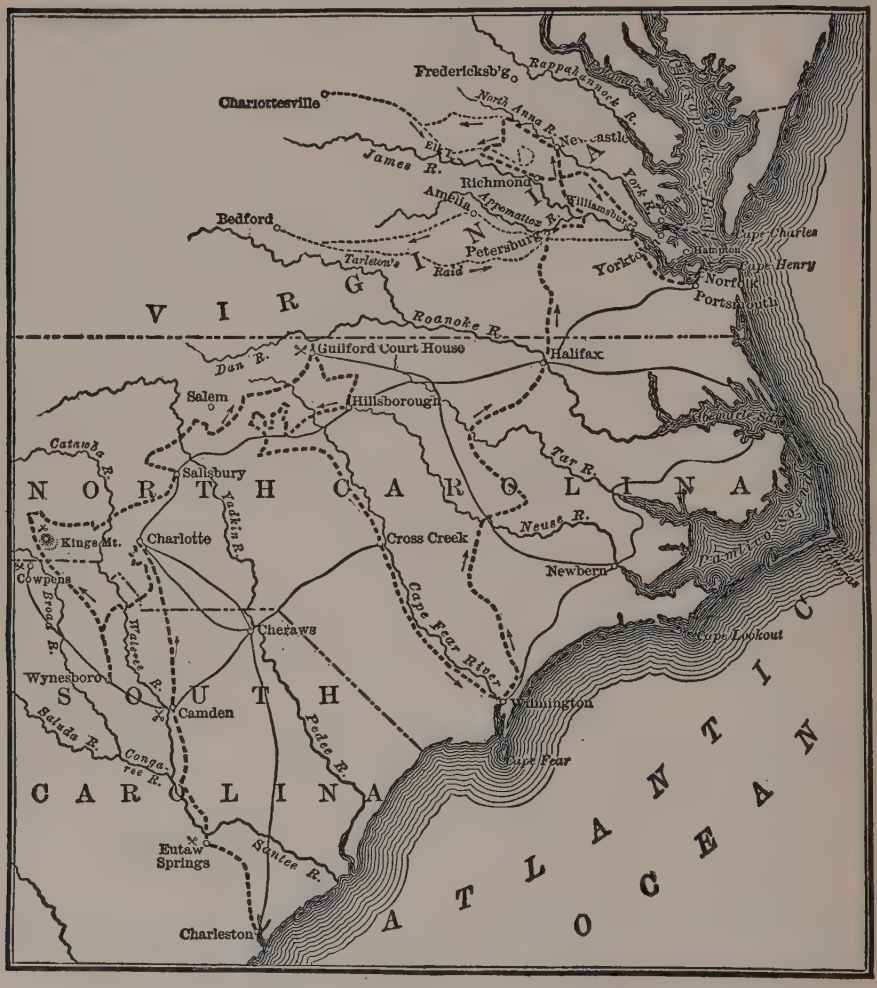


APPEARANCE OF THE BRITISH WORKS AT YORKTOWN IN 1860.

ments, military chest, and public stores of every denomination, shall be delivered unimpaired to the heads of departments appointed to receive them.

Granted

Art. 3. At twelve o'clock this day the two redoubts on the left bank of York to a place to be appointed in front of the posts, at two o'clock precisely, with shouldered arms, colors cased, and drums beating a British or German march. They are then to ground their arms, and return to their encampments, where they will remain until they are despatched to the



MAP SHOWING PLAN OF OPERATIONS IN THE SOUTH.

be delivered; the one to a detachment of American infantry; the other to a detachment of French grenadiers.

Granted.

The garrison of York will march out to places of their destination. Two works on the Gloucester side will be delivered at one o'clock to a detachment of French and American troops appointed to possess them. The garrison will march out at

three o'clock in the afternoon; the cavalry with their swords drawn, trumpets sounding; and the infantry in the manner prescribed for the garrison of York. They are likewise to return to their encampments until they can be finally marched off.

Art. 4. Officers are to retain their side-arms. Both officers and soldiers to keep their private property of every kind, and no part of their baggage or papers to be at any time subject to search or inspection. The baggage and papers of officers & soldiers taken during the siege to be likewise preserved for them.

Granted.

It is understood that any property obviously belonging to the inhabitants of these States, in the possession of the garrison, shall be subject to be reclaimed.

Art. 5. The soldiers to be kept in Virginia, Maryland, or Pennsylvania, and as much by regiments as possible, and supplied with the same rations or provisions as are allowed to soldiers in the service of America. A field-officer from each nation —to wit, British, Anspach, and Hessian— and other officers on parole in the proportion of one to fifty men, to be allowed to reside near their respective regiments and be witnesses of their treatment; and that their officers may receive and deliver

GENERAL RETURN OF OFFICERS AND PRIVATES SURRENDERED PRISONERS OF WAR, OCT. 19, 1781, TO THE ALLIED ARMY UNDER COMMAND OF HIS EXCELLENCY GENERAL WASHINGTON—TAKEN FROM THE ORIGINAL MUSTER-ROLLS.

Regiments or Corps.	Lieutenant-General.	Brigadier-Generals.	Colonels.	Lieutenant-Colonels.	Majors.	Captains.	Lieutenants.	Ensigns and Cornets.	Chaplains.	Adjutants.	Quartermasters.	Surgeons.	Other Officers.	Drummers and Trumpeters.	Rank and File.	Total Belonging to the Army.	Followers of the Army.
General and Staff	1	1	...	1	2	5	2	....	2	...	...	...	65	....	.....	79	80
Artillery	...	...	...	...	...	2	9	....	...	...	...	1	33	4	193	242	....
Guards	...	...	...	3	...	12	...	1	...	2	1	1	28	12	467	527	....
Light Infantry	...	...	...	1	1	10	16	1	...	...	...	2	33	13	594	671	....
Seventeenth Regiment	...	...	...	1	1	3	8	4	...	...	...	1	9	13	205	245	....
Twenty-third Regiment	...	...	...	...	...	3	6	....	...	1	...	1	17	....	205	233	....
Thirty-third Regiment	...	...	...	1	...	3	5	1	...	...	...	1	15	9	225	260	....
Forty-third Regiment	...	...	...	...	1	3	5	3	...	...	1	1	22	16	307	359	....
Seventy-first Regiment	...	...	...	1	1	1	11	4	...	...	1	1	29	9	242	300	....
Seventy-sixth Regiment	...	...	...	...	1	6	16	4	...	1	1	1	39	18	628	715	....
Eightieth Regiment	...	...	...	1	2	5	17	3	...	1	1	1	50	20	588	689	....
Two Battalions Anspach	...	...	2	1	2	8	32	....	1	...	2	2	54	25	948	1077	....
Prince Hereditary	...	...	...	1	1	5	5	4	1	...	1	...	30	11	425	484	....
Regiment de Bose	...	...	...	...	2	....	5	2	...	1	1	1	50	16	271	349	....
Yagers	...	...	...	...	...	1	3	....	...	...	...	1	. ..	1	68	74	....
British Legion	...	...	...	1	...	6	8	3	...	...	6	1	17	7	192	241	....
Queen's Rangers	...	...	...	1	1	10	15	11	...	...	3	2	24	5	248	320	....
North Carolina Volunteers	...	...	...	1	...	5	9	8	...	...	...	...	5	....	114	142	....
Engineers	...	...	...	...	...	....	2	....	...	...	...	...	....	....	.....	2	....
Pioneers	...	...	...	...	...	2	3	....	...	...	...	...	4	....	33	42	....
Loyal Foresters	...	...	...	...	...	2	1	....	...	...	...	...	....	....	2	5	....
Third New Jersey Volunteers	...	...	...	...	...	1	1	....	...	...	...	...	....	....	2	4	....
New York Volunteers	...	...	...	...	...	1	....	1	...	...	...	...	....	....	1	3	....
Virginia Volunteers	...	...	...	...	...	1	....	....	...	...	...	...	....	....	1	2	....
King's American Regiment	...	...	...	...	...	....	1	....	...	...	...	...	....	....	1	2	....
General De Lancey's Battalion	...	...	...	...	...	....	....	2	...	...	...	...	....	....	2	4	....
North Carolina Ind. Company	...	...	...	...	...	....	....	1	...	...	...	...	....	....	1	2	....
															5963	7073	80
Taken 14th and 16th inst	...	...	...	...	1	2	2	1	...	...	...	...	2	....	76	84	....
																7157	

Camp near Yorktown, October 27, 1781.

THOMAS DURIE,
Deputy Commissary of Prisoners.

N. B.—Since finishing the above return, I find unaccounted for: 1 Ensign Loyal Foresters, 1 Wagon Master 5 Conductors, 5 Artificers, 1 Clerk to the Deputy Quartermaster-General.

THOMAS DURIE, D.C.P.

October 28, 1781.

clothing and other necessaries for them; for which passports are to be granted when applied for.

Granted.

Art. 6. The general, staff & other officers, not employed as mentioned in the articles, and who choose it, to be permitted to go on parole to Europe, to New York, or any other American posts at present in possession of the British forces, at their own option, and proper vessels to be granted by the Count de Grasse to carry them under flags of truce to New York within ten days from this date, if possible, and they to reside in a district to be agreed upon hereafter until they embark.

The officers of the civil department of the army and navy to be included in this article. Passports to go by land to those to whom vessels cannot be furnished.

Granted.

Art. 7. Officers to be allowed to keep soldiers as servants according to the common practice of the service. Servants, not soldiers, are not to be considered as prisoners and are to be allowed to attend to their masters.

Granted.

Art. 8. The *Bonetta* sloop-of-war to be equipped and navigated by its present captain and crew and left entirely at the disposal of Lord Cornwallis from the hour that the capitulation is signed, to receive an aide-de-camp to carry despatches to Sir Henry Clinton; and such soldiers as he may think proper to send to New York, to be permitted to sail without examination, when his despatches are ready. His lordship engages on his part that the ship shall be delivered to the order of the Count de Grasse, if she escapes the dangers of the sea; that she shall not carry off any public stores. Any part of the crew that may be deficient on her return, and the soldiers passengers, to be accounted for on her delivery.

Art. 9. The traders are to preserve their property, and to be allowed three months to dispose of or remove them; and those traders are not to be considered as prisoners of war.

The traders will be allowed to dispose of their effects, the allied army having the right of pre-emption. The traders to be considered as prisoners of war upon parole.

Art. 10. Natives or inhabitants of different parts of this country, at present in York or Gloucester, are not to be punished on account of having joined the British army.

This article cannot be assented to, being altogether of civil resort.

Art. 11. Proper hospitals to be furnished for the sick & wounded. They are to be attended by their own surgeons on parole; and they are to be furnished with medicines & stores from the American hospitals.

The hospital stores now in York and Gloucester shall be delivered for the use of the British sick & wounded. Passports will be granted for procuring further supplies from New York as occasion may require; and proper hospitals will be furnished for the reception of the sick & wounded of the two garrisons.

Art. 12. Wagons to be furnished to carry the baggage of the officers attending on the soldiers, and to surgeons when travelling on account of the sick, attending the hospitals at public expense.

They are to be furnished if possible.

Art. 13. The shipping and boats in the two harbors, with all their stores, guns, tackling, and apparel, shall be delivered up in their present state to an officer of the navy appointed to take possession of them, previously unloading the private property, part of which had been on board for security during the siege.

Granted.

Art. 14. No article of capitulation to be infringed on pretence of reprisals; and if there be any doubtful expressions in it, they are to be interpreted according to the common meaning and acceptation of the words.

Granted.

Done at York Town in Virginia Oct 19 1781.

CORNWALLIS,
THOMAS SYMONDS.

Done in the trenches before York Town in Virginia Oct 19 1781.

G. WASHINGTON,
LE COMTE DE ROCHAMBEAU,
LE COMTE DE BARRAS, en mon nom & celui de Comte de Grasse.

Yorktown Monument. On Oct. 24, 1781, after the Congress had voted the thanks of the nation to Washington and his associate officers who had brought about the surrender of Cornwallis, that body resolved:

"That the United States, in Congress assembled, will cause to be erected at York, in Virginia, a marble column, adorned with emblems of the alliance between the United States and his Christian Majesty, and inscribed with a succinct narrative of the surrender of Earl Cornwallis to his excellency General Washington, commander-in-chief of the combined forces of America and France; to his excellency the Count de Rochambeau, commanding the auxiliary troops of his most Christian Majesty in America; and to his excellency the Count de Grasse, commanding the naval forces of France in Chesapeake Bay."

On the centennial anniversary of the surrender the corner-stone of a commemorative monument was laid, with impressive services, including the following address by President Arthur:

"Upon this soil, one hundred years ago, our forefathers brought to a successful issue their heroic struggle for independence. Here and then was established, and is, we trust, made secure upon this continent for ages yet to come, that principle of government which is the very fibre of our political system —the sovereignty of the people. The resentments which attended and for a time sur-

THE YORKTOWN MONUMENT.

vived the clash of arms have long since ceased to animate our hearts. It is with no feeling of exultation over a defeated foe that to-day we summon up a remembrance of those events which have made this ground holy whereon we tread. Surely no such unworthy sentiment could find harbor in our hearts, so profoundly thrilled with the expression of sorrow and sympathy which our national bereavement has evolved from the people of England and their august sovereign. But it is altogether fitting that we should gather here to refresh our souls with the contemplation of unfaltering patriotism, the sturdy zeal of sublime faith which achieved the results we now commemorate. For so, if we learn aright the lesson of the hour, shall we be incited to transmit to the generations which shall follow, the precious legacy which our forefathers left to us—the love of liberty, protected by law. Of that historic scene which we here celebrate, no feature is more prominent and none more touching than the participation of our gallant allies from across the seas. It was their presence which gave fresh and vigorous impulse to the hopes of our countrymen when wellnigh disheartened by a long series of disasters. It was their noble and generous aid extended in the darkest period of the struggle which sped the coming of our triumph and made the capitulation at Yorktown possible a century ago. To their descendants and representatives, who are here present as honored guests of the nation, it is my glad duty to offer a cordial welcome. You have a right to share with us the associations which cluster about the day, when your fathers fought side by side with our fathers in the cause which was here crowned with success, and none of the memories awakened by this anniversary are more grateful to us all than the reflection that the national friendships here so closely cemented have outlasted the mutations of a changeful century. God grant, my countrymen, that they may ever remain unshaken, and that ever henceforth with ourselves and with all nations of the earth we may be at peace!"

A touching feature of the official exercises was the execution of the following Presidential order:

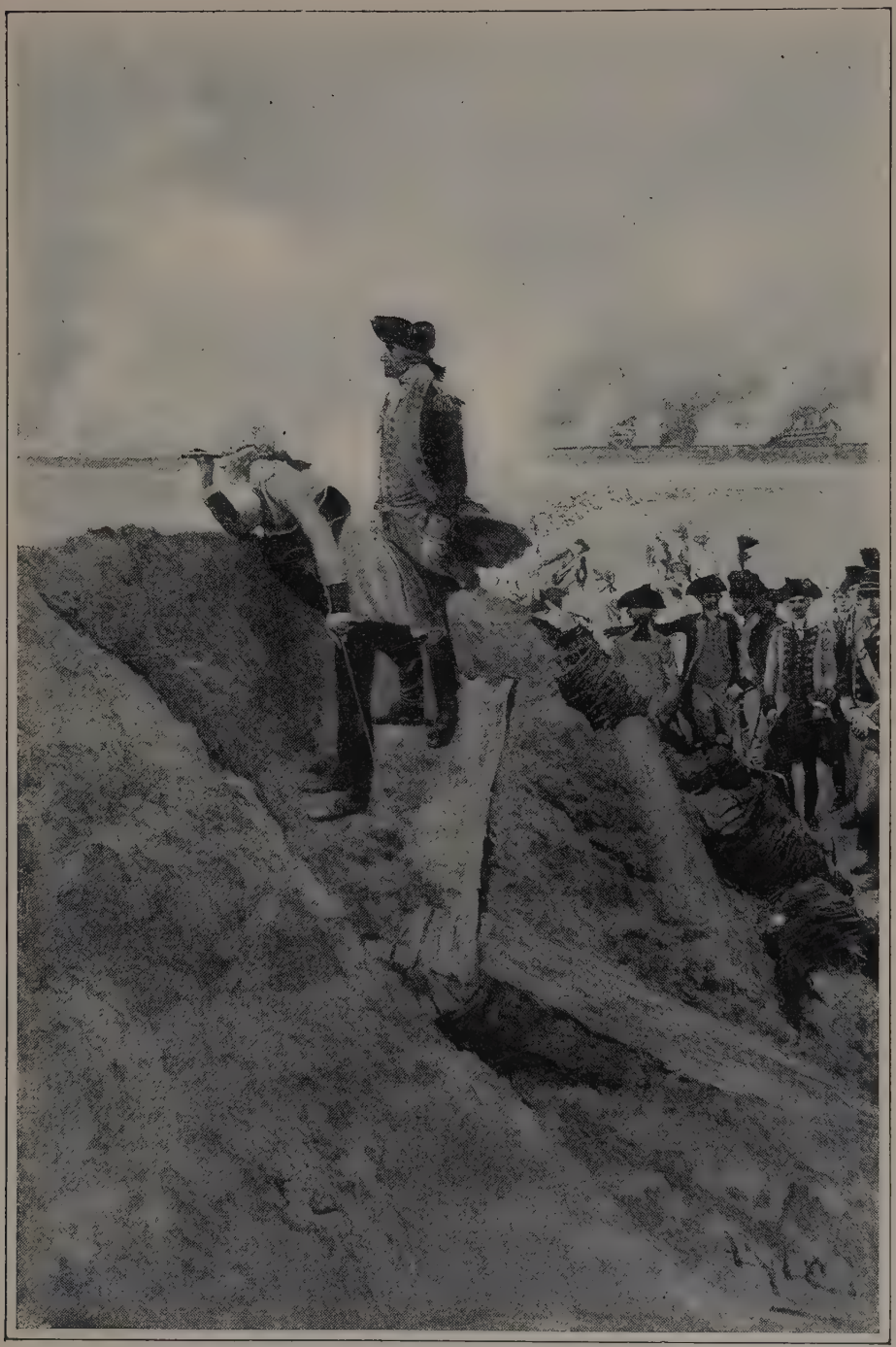
"In recognition of the friendly relations so long and so happily subsisting between Great Britain and the United States, in the trust and confidence of peace and good-will between the two countries for all centuries to come, and especially as a mark of the profound respect entertained by the American people for the illustrious sovereign and gracious lady who sits upon the British throne, it is hereby ordered that, at the close of these ceremonies in commemoration of the valor and success of our forefathers in their patriotic struggle for independence, the British flag shall be saluted by the forces of the army and navy of the United States now at Yorktown. The Secretary of War and the Secretary of the Navy will give orders accordingly."

The monument, which was the joint work of J. Q. A. Ward, sculptor, and of Richard M. Hunt and Henry Van Brunt, architects, was unveiled on Oct. 19, 1885.

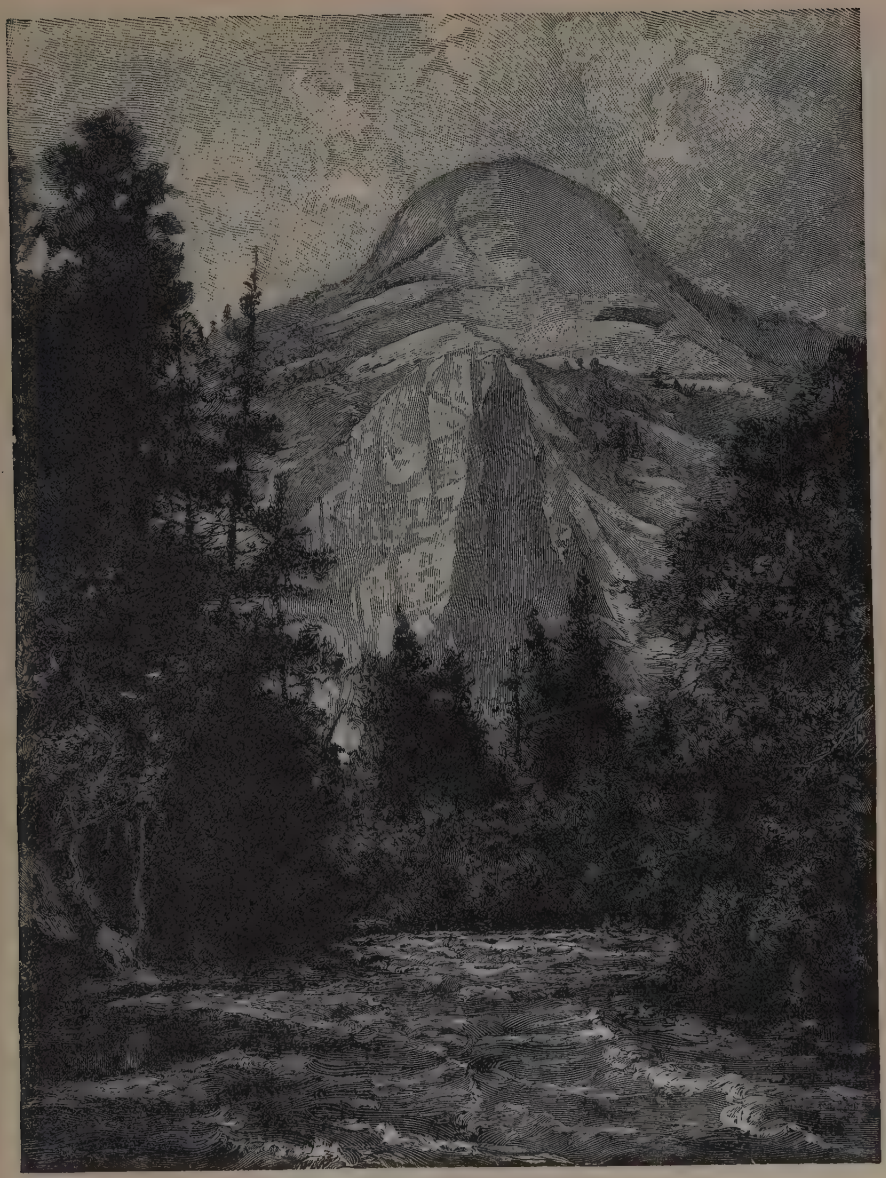
Yosemite Valley, a picturesque stretch of country in the Sierra Nevadas of California, 150 miles southeast from San Francisco. Its scenic attractions are most remarkable. It was discovered in 1851. The Indian residents of that region are said to be a mixed race. They were troublesome to the white settlers, and were chased to this stronghold. The entire area has since been set aside by Congress as a park. See PARKS, NATIONAL.

Young, ANDREW WHITE, political economist; born in Carlisle, N. Y., March 2, 1802; wrote *Introduction to the Science of Government; First Lessons in Civil Government; Citizen's Manual of Government and Law; The American Statesman: A Political History of the United States; National Economy: A History of the American Protective System.* He died in Warsaw, N. Y., Feb. 17, 1877.

Young, BRIGHAM, Mormon president; born in Whitingham, Vt., June 1, 1801; joined the Mormons at Kirtland, O., in 1832, and by shrewdness and energy soon became influential among them. He was appointed one of the "apostles" sent out in 1835 to make converts; and on the death of Joseph Smith, the founder of the Mormon Church, in 1844, became its president, prophet, and high-priest. Informing his followers that the region



WASHINGTON AND ROCHAMBEAU BEFORE THE TRENCHES AT YORKTOWN



SCENE IN THE YOSEMITE VALLEY.

of the Great Salt Lake, in mid-continent, was the promised land of the Mormons, they abandoned Nauvoo in 1846, after being cannonaded by exasperated citizens of that region. The following year Brigham Young led a few persons to Great Salt Lake Valley, and in May, 1848, the great body of the Mormons arrived there and founded Salt Lake City. Appointed the first territorial governor of Utah, he

BRIGHAM YOUNG.

assumed a political independence which was offensive to the United States government, and from time to time he gave the government much trouble. In 1856 President Buchanan sent out a military force of 2,500 men to enforce its authority. A compromise ended the disturbance. Young had twelve actual wives, besides many who were sealed to him as "spiritual wives." He died in Salt Lake City, Aug. 29, 1877. See MORMONS.

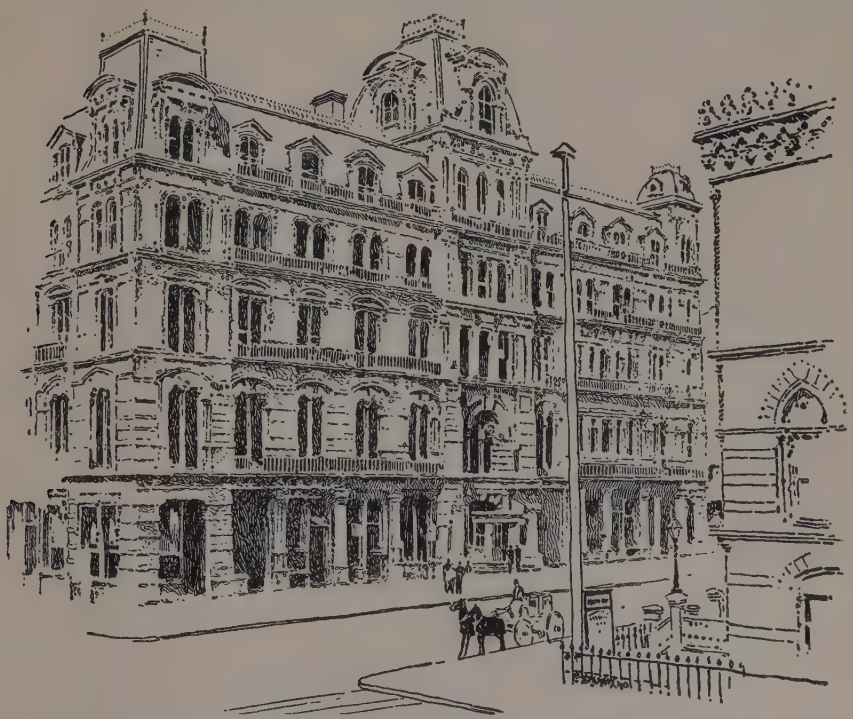
Young, ELLA FLAGG, educator; born in Buffalo, N. Y., Jan. 15, 1845; was graduated at the Chicago high and normal schools; engaged in teaching in 1862; district superintendent of schools in Chicago in 1887–99; professor of education, University of Chicago, 1899–1905; principal Chicago Normal School, 1905–09; superintendent of public schools in Chicago in 1909. Author of *Isolation in the School; Ethics in the School; Some Types of Modern Educational Theory,* etc.

Young, JOHN RUSSELL, journalist; born in Dowington, Pa., Nov. 20, 1841. During the Civil War he was a war correspondent. In 1864 he served under General Banks in the Red River campaign; then editor of the Philadelphia *Press;* later he joined the New York *Tribune,* and was its managing editor in 1866-69, during which time he established the *Morning Post* in Philadelphia, and the *Standard* in New York; was correspondent for the New York *Herald* in Europe in 1871–77, when he accompanied ex-President Grant on his journey round the world. He resumed editorial work on the *Herald* in 1879–82, and was then appointed minister to China, which office he resigned in 1885; and was appointed librarian of Congress in 1897. He was author of *Around the World with General Grant;* editor of *Memorial History of the City of Philadelphia, from Its First Settlement to the Year 1895;* and *Narrative and Critical History, 1681–1895.* He died in Washington, D. C., Jan. 17, 1899.

Young, SAMUEL BALDWIN MARKS, military officer; born in Pittsburg, Pa., Jan. 9, 1840; joined the National army in 1861; made captain Sept 6 of that year; served through the war, winning distinction in the campaign which closed with Lee's surrender; promoted captain in the regular army July 28, 1866, and colonel of the 3d Cavalry June 19, 1897. He was appointed a brigadier-general of volunteers May 4, 1898, and given command of the 2d Brigade in the cavalry division of the 5th Corps in General Shafter's army; promoted major-general of volunteers on July 8 following. He served with distinction in the Philippines in 1899–1901; was promoted brigadier-general, U. S. A., Jan. 2, 1900; major-general, Feb. 2, 1901; and lieutenant-general, Aug. 8, 1903; and was retired, Jan. 9, 1904. He was the first president of the Army War College (1902–03).

Young Men's Christian Associations, organizations of young men in the different cities, demanding a profession of Christianity in their active, and good moral character in their associate members, and working by methods in harmony with Christianity for the physical, social, mental, and spiritual improvement of

their members, and of young men in general. An organization called Young Men's Christian Association was first formed in London, England, by George Williams, in 1841. The movement extended to the United States and Canada in December, 1851, when societies were formed at Montreal, and Boston, Mass. About twenty-four associations were added during the next two years, and during the next ten years the number reached 200. At the first convention, held in Buffalo, N. Y., June 7, 1854, a confederation was formed, with a central committee, and a yearly convention. This form of affiliation continued till the time of the Civil War. During the war the United States Christian Commission of the North formed in New York, in November, 1861, sent 5,000 Christian helpers to the field and the hospitals, and distributed over $5,000,000 in money and stores. Guided by the experience gained at this period, the reorganized movement grew rapidly after the war on the following lines: The evangelical test of active membership, a definite and comprehensive plan of work, the ownership of well-adapted buildings, the employment of trained and paid officers, a committee of supervision for each State or province, with a central committee for general oversight, systematic effort directed to special classes of men (*e. g.*, merchants' clerks, college students, railroad men, German speakers, colored men, Indians, lumbermen, sailors, soldiers, etc.), and great prominence given to the Bible and personal work. A typical Young Men's Association building contains a reception-room, reading-room, library, parlor, recreation-room, offices, class-rooms, lecture and entertainment room, gymnasium, including bowling-alley, bath and dressing rooms, rooms for boys, kitchen, and janitor's den. Religious and moral instruction, work in behalf of personal purity, temperance, etc., instruction in various branches of knowledge, practical and theoretical, social gatherings, entertainments and games, an employ-



THE 23D STREET BRANCH, Y.M.C.A., NEW YORK CITY. TORN DOWN IN 1903.

ment bureau, boarding-house register, savings fund, medical club, and visitation of the sick, are features. There are two well-equipped training-schools at Springfield, Mass., and Chicago, Ill. Of over 6,600 associations in the world, 1,813 are in North America. The total membership of these American associations is 373,502; they occupy 475 buildings of their own, valued at nearly $30,000,000, and have a total net property of about $35,000,000, including 750 libraries, containing 575,000 volumes. They employ 1,893 general secretaries and other salaried officials, and expended during the fiscal year 1903–04 for current expenses nearly $1,000,000.

Young People's Society of Christian Endeavor. See CHRISTIAN ENDEAVOR, YOUNG PEOPLE'S SOCIETY OF.

Young Women's Christian Associations, societies devoted to the spiritual, mental, social, and physical development of young women. The first Young Women's Association was formed in London, England, in 1855. In the United States these associations grew out of the Ladies' Christian Union of New York, established in 1858, the first Young Women's Christian Association in this country being formed in Boston, Mass., in 1866. In 1871 there were three Young Women's Christian Associations and twenty-seven other women's associations. The associations since 1871 have held biennial conferences. There is a distinct organization of Young Women's Christian Associations in the colleges, all sprung from the first association in the State Normal University, Normal, Ill., in November, 1872. The work in Young Women's Christian Associations was at first modelled on that of the Young Men's Christian Associations, but it was found that women's needs required that it should be different. An important feature is the maintenance of boarding-homes for young women. Besides this, the associations in the large cities have gymnasiums, educational classes, entertainments, lectures, employment bureaus, etc.

The work of the associations among women is fourfold: Physical—systematic training in the gymnasium, health talks, holiday excursions, and outing clubs. Social—receptions and socials in homelike rooms, boarding-clubs, employment bureaus. Intellectual—libraries and reading-rooms, educational classes, lecture courses, concerts, library, musical, and art clubs. Spiritual—Bible training classes, evangelistic meetings, personal work, Gospel meetings.

The number of associations in the United States (associations connected with the American committee) is 431; total membership, 35,000.

The International Association was formed in 1886.

Youngstown, O., was settled by John Young, who, in 1800, purchased from the Connecticut Land Company the site of the present city and the township of the same name. The industrial development of the city began in 1845–46, when the second rolling-mill in the State was erected here as well as the first furnace. The principal industry to-day is the manufacture of iron. Pop. (1910), 79,066.

Yucatan, a peninsula of Mexico, comprising the States of Yucatan and Campeche; area, Yucatan, 35,203 square miles; Campeche, 18,087; population in 1900, Yucatan, 314,087; Campeche, 86,542. The peninsula was discovered by Francis Hernandez Cordova, who, with three caravels and 110 men, sailed from Havana on Feb. 8, 1517. They first saw land at Cape Catoche, the eastern point of Yucatan, an Aztec name for the great peninsula. He landed at several places, but was driven off by the naked barbarians, who used bows and arrows skilfully. Cordova was afterwards mortally wounded by some of the natives north of Campeche, who killed forty-seven of the Spanish intruders, allowing only one man to escape. On his return from Yucatan, Cordova's vessel touched the coast of Florida.

Yukian Indians, a North American family deriving its name from that of one of its tribes, Yuki, and springing from Wintun stock. The family comprises the Yuki, Chumaia, Tatu or Hutchnom, Ashochimi or Wappo, and Napa tribes, all located in California.

Yukon, or Kwickpak, River, one of the largest and most remarkable streams on our continent. It is formed at Fort Selkirk, south of Dawson City, by the junction of the Lewes and Pelly rivers, and further northward it receives the

waters of Stewart, McQuesten, and Indian rivers, and at Dawson City is joined by the Klondike, after which it proceeds northwestward into Alaska, finally emptying into the northern Pacific, a total distance of over 1,850 miles. From its twenty-five outlets, its discharge of waters is estimated to be nearly two-thirds that of the Mississippi. In Alaska its main tributary is the Porcupine. The Yukon River is navigable for long stretches in the summer months, though on its upper waters navigation is interfered with by rapids and the swiftness of its current.

The climate is comparatively mild near the mouth of the river, but is much more severe in the interior. The mean annual temperature in the territory drained by the river is 25° Fahr., and the ground never thaws—though the short summer is quite hot—more than 2 or 3 feet below the surface. All along the Yukon River the ground is fertile, and rich crops of grass grow there. The summers are too short to admit of the raising of grain, and the only vegetables that can be raised successfully are radishes, turnips, and lettuce. The whole Yukon Valley is well wooded, yielding a fine growth of firs, alders, poplars, birch, and spruce. Fishing, hunting, and cattle-raising are all occupations that could be profitably carried on in the Yukon Valley. The natives of Alaska are properly divided into two classes—the Eskimos, living on the coast and adjacent islands, and the Indian tribes of the interior. Of the latter the Co-Yukon is the largest tribe, living in scattered groups of rude villages along the Yukon Valley. They are described as a race of fine physical development, being tall, erect, muscular, and very courageous. In the winter they shelter themselves from the severe weather in underground hovels. They are far from being civilized, being very ignorant and superstitious. They subsist by hunting, trapping, and fishing. The former district of Yukon was constituted a Territory in 1898, and in 1901 had a population of 27,219. See ALASKA; KLONDIKE.

Yuman Indians, a North American family comprising the following tribes: Cochimi, Cocopa, Comeya, Diegueño, Havesupai, Maricopa, Mohave or Mojave, Yuwapai, Pericu, Seri or Ceri, Tonto, Waikuru, and Walapai or Hualapai. These tribes occupied the territory between northern Arizona and Lower California, together with a small tract in the western part of the Mexican state of Sonora. The Jesuits established missions among the Indians in Lower California in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. The mission of San Diego, founded in 1767, was the first in northern California. Two missions were established near the present Fort Yuma in 1780, but were destroyed the following year, when the missionaries were killed by the Indians. In 1899 there were 707 Yumas at the mission, Tule River agency, in California; forty-two Yumas at the San Carlos agency, in Arizona; 2,383 Mohaves at the Colorado River agency, in Arizona; 340 Maricopas at the Pima agency, in Arizona; and 526 Mohaves at the San Carlos agency—total, 3,998; and in 1909 the tribes within the United States had a population of about 3,700.

Yung Wing, diplomatist; born in Nan Ping, China, Nov. 17, 1828; came to the United States in 1847; graduated at Yale College in 1854; was commissioned by the Chinese government in 1864 to buy machinery in the United States for what became the arsenal of Kiang Nan. In 1870 he made several propositions to the Chinese government, two of which were adopted—*viz.,* to arrange a settlement of the massacre of Christians in Tientsin by establishing a line of steamers to carry tribute-rice, the outgrowth of which was the celebrated China Merchant Steam Navigation Company; and to provide for the education of Chinese youth in foreign countries, that intercourse with foreigners might be made easier. Under the last provision he brought 120 Chinese youth to the United States in 1872–74, and, under the charge of an educational commission with headquarters at Hartford, Conn., they were prepared by a thorough course of study to take their places as wise and intelligent rulers among the government officials of their country. Yung Wing was assistant minister of China to Washington in 1878–82. He married Miss Mary Kellogg, of Hartford, Conn., and this act, meeting with much disfavor in China, led to his recall. He did not dare take his wife and two children with him, and, finding himself officially ignored, he re-

turned to Hartford, where he remained till the Chino-Japanese War, when he was ordered to return to China. He was appointed one of the Chinese peace commissioners, but the Japanese commissioners declined to recognize him on account of his rank, and a first-rank nobleman, Chang Ten Hoon, was appointed to his place. Yung Wing was then raised to that rank, and in 1897 he was the Chinese representative at Queen Victoria's jubilee. He died at Hartford, Conn., April 12, 1912.

Z.

Zagonyi's Charge. When on his march southward, in October, 1861, General Frémont sent the combined cavalry forces of Zagonyi, a Hungarian commanding his guard, and Major White to reconnoitre the position of the Confederates at Springfield, Mo. They were led by the former, who was instructed to attempt the capture of Springfield if circumstances should promise success. The whole force did not exceed 300 men. As they approached the place (Oct. 24), they were informed that the Confederates in the town were fully 2,000 strong. Zagonyi determined to attack them. Apprised of his coming, the Confederates prepared for his reception. He addressed his own little band, saying: "The enemy is 2,000 strong, and we are but 150. It is possible that no man will come back. If any of you would turn back, you can do so now." Not a man moved. "I will lead you!" he exclaimed. He gave the order, "Quick trot—march!" and away they dashed down a narrow lane fringed with concealed sharp-shooters, while there was a terrible fire from the Confederate infantry in front. On an eminence stood the Confederate cavalry. On their centre a lieutenant, with thirty men, dashed madly, breaking their line and scattering the whole body in confusion over the neighboring cornfields. The remainder of Zagonyi's men charged, and at the same moment fifty Irish dragoons of White's command, led by Major McNaughton, fell upon the foe, and the Confederate cavalry and infantry fled in terror, pursued by a portion of Zagonyi's guard. Through the streets of Springfield they were chased, while the Union women cheered on the victors. The Confederates were utterly routed. When the fight ended, of the 150 of the guard, eighty-four were dead or wounded. The action had lasted an hour and a half, and in the dim twilight the Union flag waved in triumph.

Zalinski, Edmund Louis Gray, military officer; born in Kurnich, Prussian Poland, Dec. 13, 1849; came to the United States with his parents in 1853, and settled in Seneca Falls, N. Y. He was appointed an aide on the staff of Gen. Nelson A. Miles in 1864, and served till the close of the war, being promoted second lieutenant of volunteers in 1865 for gallantry at the battle of Hatcher's Run. In February, 1866, he was appointed a second lieutenant in the 5th United States Artillery; was promoted first lieutenant in January, 1867, and captain in December, 1887; was Professor of Military Science in the Massachusetts Institute of Technology in 1872–76; graduated at the United States Artillery School at Fort Monroe, Va., and at the School of Submarine Mining at Willett's Point, N. Y., in 1880; invented and was engaged in developing and perfecting the pneumatic dynamite torpedo gun bearing his name in 1883–89; travelled in Europe to obtain military information in 1889–90; was on garrison duty in San Francisco, Cal., in 1892; and was retired Feb. 3, 1894. Captain Zalinski invented an intrenching tool, a ramrod bayonet, a telescopic sight for artillery, and a system of range and position finding for artillery. He died in New York City, March 10, 1909.

Zane, Ebenezer, pioneer; born in Berkeley county, Va., Oct. 7, 1747; established the first permanent settlement on the Ohio River in 1770, at the present site of Wheeling. He there built Fort Henry, which later sustained several attacks by the Indians; was disbursing officer for Lord Dunmore; and promoted colonel. He was proprietor of the present site of Zanesville, on the Muskingum River. He died in Wheeling, W. Va., in 1811. See Zanesville.

Zanesville, a city and county seat of Muskingum county, O.; at the confluence of the Muskingum and Licking rivers; 59

miles east of Columbus. It was laid out in 1799 by EBENEZER ZANE (*q. v.*) and John McIntyre, who with Jonathan Zane surveyed the part of the national turnpike between Wheeling, W. Va., and Maysville, Ky., and acquired a large tract of land here. The settlement was successively known as Zanetown, Westbourne, and, since 1804, Zanesville. Here the first legislature of the State met in 1804–5, and here was the seat of the State government in 1810–12. McIntyre built the first cabin, the first tavern, and the first ferry across the Muskingum, and left a handsome estate to the place for the support of free schools. Population in 1900, 23,538; in 1910, 28,026.

Zapata, EMILIANO, revolutionist; born in Morelos, Mexico, about 1872; early became noted as a bandit and later as "the scourge of Morelos"; evaded all attempts by President Diaz to capture him; joined the Madero party; was arrested as an outlaw by General Huerta, then Minister of War; released and made a brigadier-general by Madero; went with Carranza into the Constitutionalist army; terrorized the states south and west of the capital; and was especially active around Mexico City in December, 1913, and January, 1914.

Zeisberger, DAVID, missionary; born in Zauchtenthal, Moravia, April 11, 1721; came to America in early youth; was one of the founders of Bethlehem, Pa., in 1740; and soon afterward became a missionary among the Indians. He founded a Christian Indian settlement on the Tuscarawas, Ohio, 1772; one in Huron county, and a third on the Thames, in Canada, 1787. In 1798 the Moravians returned to their former settlements in Ohio, where grants had been made them by Congress, and established a new station, which they called Goshen, and there Zeisberger preached till his death, Nov. 17, 1808.

Zenger, JOHN PETER, printer; born in Germany, about 1680; came to America in 1700, and learned the printers' trade with the elder Bradford. On the death of John Montgomerie, governor of New York (July 1, 1731), Rip Van Dam, merchant, senior member of the council, became, *ex officio*, chief magistrate of the province. William Cosby, a colonel in the Royal army, was appointed governor, but did not arrive in New York until August, 1732, or thirteen months after the office became vacant. Cosby was rapacious, and came to the colony to make money. His professions made the Assembly (in session at the time of his arrival) suppose him to be a friend of the people, and they lavished upon him perquisites and presents because of his opposition to the sugar bill before Parliament, which threatened the ruin of the commerce of the colony. Van Dam was a Democrat, and popular with the people. Cosby demanded one-half the salary which Van Dam had received during his presidency over the colony for thirteen months. The merchant agreed, provided the governor would divide the perquisites he had received—a much larger sum. The latter refused, and the former declined to make a division. A bitter quarrel and a lawsuit ensued. Never were party lines in the colony more defined than now, the Democratic party taking sides with Van Dam, and the Loyalist party—"men of figure"—with Cosby.

At that time the venerable William Bradford was the government printer, and was publishing a newspaper called the *New York Weekly Gazette.* It was the organ of the governor and his party. At the same time Zenger was publishing a paper called the *New York Weekly Journal.* It was the organ of the Van Dam, or popular party. Through its columns writers severely criticised the administration. Squibs, ballads, and serious charges that appeared in Zenger's *Journal* irritated Cosby and his council beyond endurance. On Nov. 2, 1734, the council ordered certain numbers of the *Journal* containing alleged libels to be "burned by the hands of the common hangman, or whipped near the pillory"; and a few days afterwards, by order of the same authority, Zenger was arrested and cast into prison on a charge of libel. Van Dam's counsel (William Smith, father of the historian, and William Alexander, father of Lord Stirling) took up Zenger's case with vigor. At the next term of the court (April, 1735) they filed an exception to the commissions of the chief-justice (James De Lancey) and the associate (Frederick Phillipse).

This questioning of their authority made the judges very angry, and, by an order of the chief-justice, Smith and

Alexander were silenced as advocates. The arbitrary act aroused public indignation, and the silenced lawyers made ample preparations for the trial, which came on in July. The grand jury had found no indictment, and Zenger was tried on "information" by the attorney-general. Andrew Hamilton, of Pennsylvania, the most eminent lawyer in the colonies, was secretly employed to defend Zenger. To the astonishment of the court, he appeared, on the day of trial, as the champion of the freedom of the press. By keen legal weapons, he foiled the sophistry of the court, and obtained from the jury a verdict of acquittal for Zenger, on the ground that an alleged libel is justified by its truth, and that jurors are judges of both law and fact. The crowded court-room was instantly resonant with applause, and the delighted people carried the venerable advocate out of the city hall on their shoulders. The corporation of the city of New York presented Mr. Hamilton with the freedom of the city in a gold box "for his learned and generous defence of the rights of mankind and the liberty of the press." He charged no fee for his services. Gouverneur Morris said to Dr. John W. Francis: "The trial of Zenger, in 1735, was the germ of American freedom—the morning star of that liberty which subsequently revolutionized America." Zenger died in New York City in 1746.

Zeno, Nicolo, navigator; born in Venice about 1340; made a voyage of discovery into the northern seas about 1390. He was wrecked on one of the Faroe Islands, it is supposed, and entered the service of a chief, whom he called Zichmini, as pilot of his fleet. He wrote a letter to his brother Antonio, giving an account of his voyage. Antonio joined him. Nicolo died in Newfoundland about 1391, and Antonio remained in the service of Zichmini ten years longer, and wrote letters to his brother Carlo. Antonio returned to Venice, and died in 1405. From the letters of Nicolo and Antonio a narrative, accompanied by a map, was compiled and published in 1558, by a descendant of Antonio Zeno. It gives an account of a visit made by Nicolo to Greenland, of the colonies there, and of the voyages of fishermen to the island of Estotiland (supposed to have been Newfoundland), and to a great country called Drogeo, conjectured to have been the mainland of America. See Northmen in America.

Zerrahn, Carl, musician; born in Malchow, Mecklenburg-Schwerin, Germany, July 28, 1826; studied music in Rostock, Hanover, and Berlin; came to the United States, where he became a member of the Germania Musical Society of Boston, which gave concerts in the principal cities east of the Alleghany Mountains in 1848–54. He was musical director of the Handel and Haydn Society of Boston in 1854; conductor of the Harvard Musical Association in 1866–82, and of the annual music festivals given by the Worcester County Musical Association. He edited *The Carl Zerrahn Selections*, etc. He died in Milton, Mass., Dec. 29, 1909.

Zinzendorf, Nicolaus Ludwig, Count, religious reformer; born in Dresden, Saxony, May 26, 1700; son of a leading minister of the electorate of Saxony; was educated at Halle and Wittenberg. When,

NICOLAUS LUDWIG ZINZENDORF.

in 1720, he received his deceased father's estate from his guardians, he purchased a lordship in Lusatia, and married a sister of the Prince of Reuss. When he was

twenty-two years of age he became interested in the discipline and doctrines of the scattered Moravian brethren, invited some of them to settle on his estate, formed statutes for their government, and finally became a bishop among them, and one of their most ardent missionaries. John Wesley passed some time at the home of Zinzendorf, and from him imbibed notions of church organization and a missionary spirit upon which he afterwards acted. He commended singing as a wonderful power in the church. Zinzendorf was consecrated bishop in 1736, travelled over the Continent, visited England, and sent missionaries to every part of the world. In 1741 he came to Pennsylvania, and established several Moravian settlements. The first Indian Moravian congregation in America was established by him, at Shemoeko, Dutchess co., N. Y., in 1742, under the supervision of Gottlob Bütner. Zinzendorf returned to Europe in 1743, and spent the remainder of his life in the cause of the Unitas Fratrum, or United Brethren. He died in Herrnhut, May 9, 1760.

Zionists, the name applied to those Jews in various parts of the world who have organized themselves into an association to promote the settlement of Jewish colonies in the Holy Land. Out of this movement grew a project for the founding of a purely Jewish political state in Palestine, the chief advocate of which was Dr. Theodore Herzl, editor of the *Neue Freie Presse* of Vienna. The Holy Land is under the political control of Turkey, and while that country is willing to permit the Jews to colonize there for industrial purposes it has distinctly declared that it will not permit the erection of an independent state. This determination confines the work of the Zionists, especially the Federation of American Zionists, to the purely industrial colonization of the ancient home of the race.

A convention of Zionists was held in Basle, Switzerland, in August, 1897, when Max Nordau, summarized the reasons for forming the association and stated its aims. "Throughout Europe," he said, "the Jews are oppressed by governments and subjected to cruelty and ridicule in private life. The Jews are friendless among the races of the world; they must stand together and help each other. The best course is to colonize Palestine. It will take about $100,000,000 to carry out the work, and the money is to be raised from the Jews themselves. Every Jew in the world is to be asked to contribute at least 25 cents a year. If successful, the association will plant 5,000,000 Jews in Palestine; and each family must be provided with land, horse, cow, and implements of agriculture."

The following extract from an official report by United States Consul Germain, in June, 1897, shows what had been quietly accomplished up to that time: "The settlements founded by Russian and Rumanian Jewish exiles in the last decade were at first confined to Samarin, to-day called Sichrôn-Ja'akôb, and Rosch-Pinah, in Galilee. Like all new enterprises, this one was subjected to many drawbacks. The colonists, formerly merchants or artisans, were inexperienced in their new occupation, and had no one to advise them. Mistakes in the selection and cultivation of the soil, and subsequent despondency, were the natural consequences. Charitable gifts from the outside improved the situation. To-day twenty-two villages, with an area of about 92,000 acres, have sprung up and flourish. The agricultural school Mikweh-Israel, with an area of 593 acres, which serves as an experimental station and model farm, governs the colonies. The net earnings of this school are already sufficient to support all the teachers, as well as the 100 pupils. The largest settlement is the village of Sichrôn-Ja'akôb, which, with an area of 4,942 acres, has 1,000 inhabitants, paved streets, a school-house in charge of five teachers, one synagogue, one physician, and a pharmacy. The colonists raise principally vegetables and wine grapes, and at the same time, as a side issue, plant fruit trees and spend their spare time on bee culture. They are also planting mulberry-trees, with a view to silkworm culture in the future. The village of Rischol l'Zion, with an area of 22,239 acres, possesses already 1,500,000 vine stalks (which in 1894 produced about 210,000 gallons of wine), 20,000 mulberry-trees, 10,000 fruit, almond, walnut, fig, and other trees. Each colonist possesses a stone house, with a vegetable and flower garden

A VIEW OF JERUSALEM.

adjacent thereto, a horse and wagon, a cow, and an assortment of domestic fowl. In the other villages similar conditions prevail. At Gadrah, a settlement of former Russian students, a distillery for the manufacture of brandy is already in operation. All in all, the prospects are now good and encouraging."

According to the latest statistics there were about 44,000 Jews in Palestine, about one-half in Jerusalem and its environs, the other half occupying farming lands near Carmel and in the valleys of the plains of Sharon and Esdraelon.

The Rev. Stephen A. Wise, rabbi of the Madison Avenue Synagogue, New York City, and secretary of the second annual congress of Zionists in Basle in 1898, commented as follows on the work then accomplished:

"The first congress was held exactly a year ago, upon the initiative of Dr. Theodore Herzl, a gifted man of letters of Vienna, who in his book *The Jewish State*, has urged Zionism upon the Jewish people as the solution of the Jewish question. In masterly fashion Dr. Herzl, in this work, portrays the evils engendered by anti-Semitism in almost every country in the world.

"Such anti-Semitism being or seeming almost incurable, he declared that the time had come when the Jews must look to themselves to solve the question of their further survival. This solution he declared to be Zionism. In other words, the securing of a legally guaranteed home in Palestine or Syria under the necessary jurisdiction of the Ottoman Empire and further guaranteed by a true concert of the European powers. Dr. Herzl, in convincing fashion, urged the wisdom of Zionism, in so far as it was calculated to put an end to the conflicting interests of the European nations at present contending for supremacy in the Holy Land.

"Although Dr. Herzl gave a powerful impulse to the Zionist movement, it should be remembered, as has been well said, that Zionism was born when Israel was first

expelled from Zion. For 800 years and more this love of Zion has formed no small part of the faith and aspirations of the Jewish people, notably in the second century of the present era, and, as a result, an attempt was made on the part of some Jewish heroes, whose spirit was mightier than their flesh, to wrest Judea from the hands of the Roman victors. The love of Zion on the part of "Jewish dreamers" translated itself into action. All such endeavors, however courageously planned and even nobly executed, have been in vain.

"Singularly enough, it remained for the nineteenth century, with all its much-boasted enlightenment and wide-spread spirit of toleration, to force upon the Jewish nation, if not the *motif*, the necessity for looking back with eager longing upon the land of our fathers, owing to the constant persecution to which the house of Israel has been subjected in renewed measure and with redoubled violence during the last score of years. Nevertheless, as if in answer to the protest of a distinguished Anglo-Jewish leader, Dr. Herzl maintained in his remarkable words incident to the closing of the congress, with calmness and dignity, that Zionism was not merely a sad necessity, but a glorious ideal—a sad necessity, for how few are the lands in which the Hebrews are permitted to dwell in peace and concord by the side of their fellow-men, and a glorious ideal, because Zionism held forth a promise of a higher, larger development of the intellectual and spiritual capabilities inherent within the Hebrew race.

"No less than 250,000 Jews have within two years formally and actively identified themselves with the Zionist movement, as is best evidenced by the payment of the 'shekel,' which is the annual levy imposed upon the Zionists for the support of the work. Such number, however, represents at least 1,000,000 or 1,500,000 of Jews, seeing that such contributions are gathered mainly from heads of Jewish families, which are, as a rule, goodly in number, as the world well knows. In the second place, the congress not merely authorized, but actually established a bank, to be known as the Jewish Colonial Bank, which will have a preliminary capitalization of 50,000,000 francs, such money to be used to further the interests of the cause.

"Zionism, however, aims to be worthily representative of all the Jews by proclaiming itself law abiding, and in the light of such principles all further infiltration of foreign Jews into Palestine and Syria will be frowned upon in every way and hindered until all legal restrictions which at present bar the way of the immigrant Jew into the Holy Land shall have been formally and finally removed by Ottoman decree.

"In conclusion, I desire to state that for the present, greater than the mere facts, however great, which are to be chronicled, is the tremendous influence upon Jews of every land which Zionism exerts among them. Even the sternest critics must allow that Zionism has already brought back within the ranks of Judaism hosts, aye, even multitudes, of gifted, forceful men and women, drawn from every rank and circle of condition of Jewish life, who heretofore have held aloof from all touch with the Jewish body politic. And, in the end, whether it be true or not, as is so stoutly held, that many Zionists have returned to Judaism only by way of Zionism, wherefore the greater is the victory, for, as said by Dr. Max Nordau, 'Zionism is Judaism, and Judaism is unthinkable without Zionism.'"

The fourth annual convention of the Federation of American Zionists was held in Philadelphia, Pa., on June 16–17, 1901. In his annual report President Richard Gotthiel said:

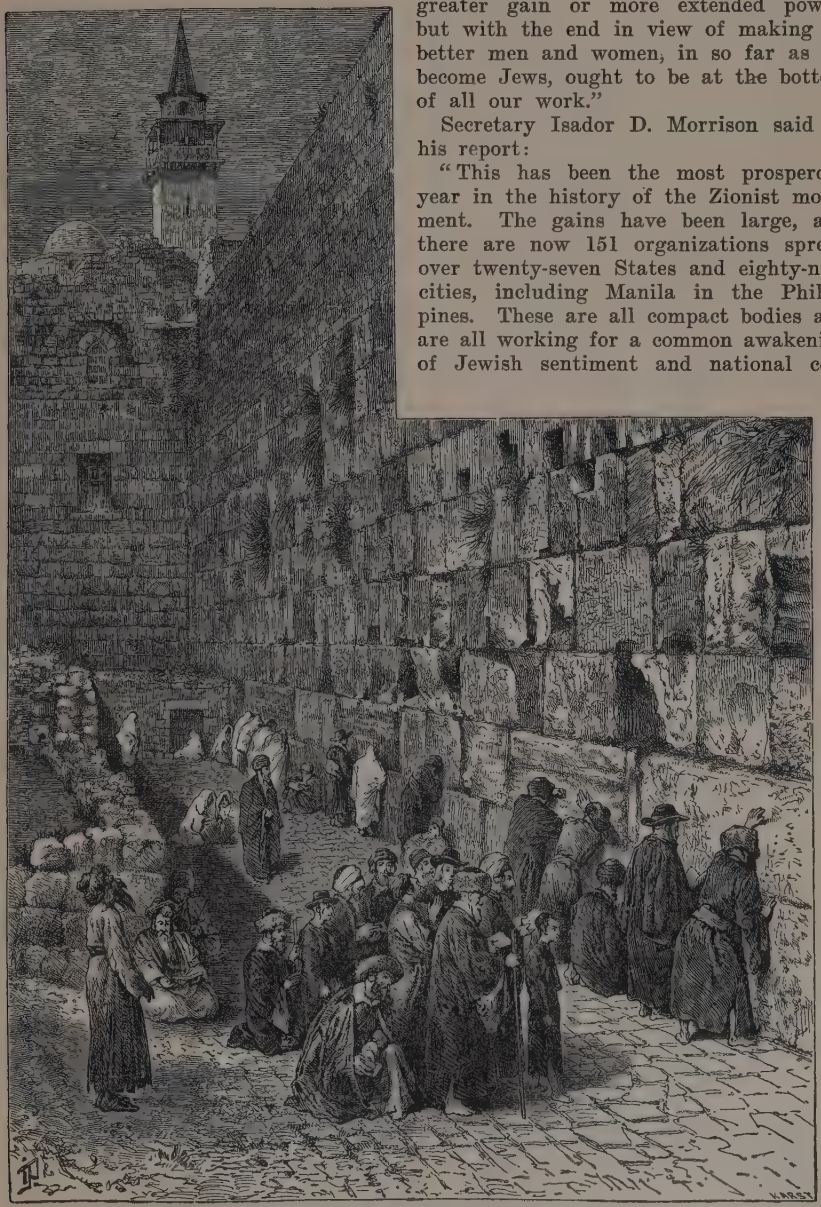
"We are now reaping the harvest, in many cases a hard harvest, sown by the disorganization which has been produced by want of common purpose, and by our having lived under so many civilizations. The ultra-democratic spirit that saved the Jew in former times may work his ruin to-day, now that organization and combination are the keynotes of the economic development of our time. That the change will be accompanied by a wrench it would be foolish to deny, but we must meet the difficulty in the only way that such difficulty can be met, with steadfast heart and the beacon-light of our goal steadily before our eyes.

"We must do away with the individualism that has almost become our second

nature, we must learn to obey as well as to rule. Our Zionist organization, while built upon a solid foundation and reared of parts that closely fit one into the other, is still democratic in spirit in the best sense of the word. The assertion of Jewish consciousness, not for the purpose of greater gain or more extended power, but with the end in view of making us better men and women, in so far as we become Jews, ought to be at the bottom of all our work."

Secretary Isador D. Morrison said in his report:

"This has been the most prosperous year in the history of the Zionist movement. The gains have been large, and there are now 151 organizations spread over twenty-seven States and eighty-nine cities, including Manila in the Philippines. These are all compact bodies and are all working for a common awakening of Jewish sentiment and national con-



THE WAILING-PLACE OF THE JEWS AT JERUSALEM.

sciousness. We American Jews who have the good fortune to be citizens of a land of freedom and equal rights, have at last come to realize that our brethren living in lands of darkness and persecution are kinsmen bound to us by a common history, religion, and literature; and while we will always remain loyal citizens of this beloved country of ours, we must and will stretch out a helping hand to our brethren across the sea."

The ninth Zionist Congress was held in Hamburg, Germany, Dec. 26–31, 1909, with 350 delegates from all parts of the world in attendance. It was decided by resolution to gradually transfer all Zionist capital to Palestine, and to make Palestine the only centre for its financial and industrial operations. It was announced by Dr. Max Nordau that the executive committee adhered to the original or Basle plan, making the return of the Jewish people to the holy land conditional upon the consent of the Turkish government that they be allowed to form a nationality within the Ottoman empire like the other nationalities there and to be recognized as such. The recent changes in Turkey, it was asserted, had not made it necessary to alter the terms of the old programme—"a publicly recognized, legally assured home for the Jewish people in Palestine." Encouraging reports were received as to the progress of Jerusalem school for trades and art, established some years ago, and as to the prospects of the proposed technical institute at Haifa and the laboratory for scientific agricultural research at Zikhron Jacob, Palestine.

The tenth Zionist Congress was held in Basle, Switzerland, in August, 1911. The United States was represented by Prof. Harry Friedenwald, of Johns Hopkins University; Prof. Richard J. H. Gottheil, of Columbia University; A. Lubarski, Leon Kamaiky, editor of the New York *Tageblatt;* Dr. Smirnow, of Connecticut; Dr. Israel Friedlaender, the Orientalist, of New York; Max Shulman, grand master of the Order of Knights of Zion, Western Federation, of Chicago, and B. Horwich, vice-grand master of the same body. There were about 500 delegates in all, representing nearly every part of the world. See SCHIFF, JACOB HENRY.

Zionites. See DOWIE, JOHN ALEXANDER.

Zipangi, or Cipangi, the island of Japan described by Marco Polo, a Venetian traveller, who visited China early in the thirteenth century. He described Zipangi as a beautiful and wealthy island in the Eastern seas, 1,500 miles from land. Columbus and other early navigators made diligent search for it. See CATHAY.

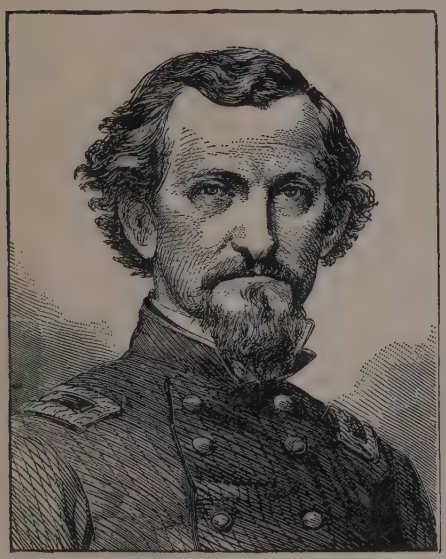
Zoarites, a communistic society, the legal title of which is The Separated Society of Zoa. The Zoarites came to Philadelphia from that hotbed of religious discontent, Würtemberg, Germany, in 1817, finding welcome among the Quakers, who furnished them funds to migrate the following spring to Ohio, where they purchased 5,000 acres of land. At first there was no intention of a communistic settlement. Time revealed, however, that they were unequal in age, strength, experience, and enterprise. The leaders saw that the undertaking would fail unless it was established upon a different basis. A community of goods and efforts was in consequence effected.

The community was governed solely by three trustees, who had unlimited power. They appointed each member to his special work, but never without consulting his personal inclination. Aside from the trustees, there was an agent-general, who controlled the society's dealings with the outside world. This office was held by Joseph Bäumeler (Anglicized Bimëler), founder of the Zoarites and a born leader of men, until his death in 1853, after which it remained vacant. Bimëler was practically king, and his house is known to this day as the "king's palace." Thither came each family twice a week to receive food, clothing, and housekeeping goods. No account of the distribution was kept. Each person was permitted two suits of clothes a year. Each selected his or her material. There was a village tailor, dressmaker, and shoemaker, and all followed the same mode. Until recent date they spun and wove their own materials, tanned leather for their shoes, and supplied not only the needs of the community, but also a large outside market with stoves, tiles, and other productions. They had no literary or artistic taste, and ability to make music of a commonplace order was

the only talent apparent, but their religion forbade dancing. Their morality was unimpeachable. Asked why so moral a community maintained a prison, they replied, "For the accommodation of visitors!"

Celibacy was advocated by the Zoarites until Joseph Bimëler succumbed to the charms of a village maid. Then marriage became honorable in the community. The society was dissolved in 1899, each of the 136 members receiving $5,000. One-half went to Minnesota, where the leaders purchased 6,000 acres of land.

Zollicoffer, FELIX KIRK, military officer; born in Maury county, Tenn., May 19,



FELIX KIRK ZOLLICOFFER.

1812; was a printer and newspaper publisher at Paris, Tenn. In 1841 he edited the Nashville *Banner*, the leading Whig paper in the State, and in 1835 was chosen State printer. He was comptroller of the State treasury from 1845 to 1849, and State senator in 1849. From 1853 to 1859 he was in Congress, and a persistent advocate of State supremacy, and in 1861 was a member of the peace conference. Then he became a brigadier-general in the Confederate army, taking command of east Tennessee. In a battle at Camp Wildcat, in Kentucky, Oct. 21, 1861, he was defeated by General Schoepf. He was killed in the battle of Mill Spring, Jan. 19, 1862.

Zook, SAMUEL KOSCIUZKO, military officer; born in Pennsylvania about 1823; was a telegraph operator, and made some important discoveries in the science of electricity. After 1848 he resided in New York City, and when the Civil War began he became colonel of the 6th New York State militia, and hastened to the army gathering around Washington. He was military governor of Annapolis a while, when he returned, raised the 57th New York Volunteers, and did gallant service on the Peninsula, where he generally commanded a brigade. On Nov. 29, 1862, he was made brigadier-general, and distinguished himself at Chancellorsville and Gettysburg, and was killed in the latter battle, July 2, 1863.

Zouaves, the name originally adopted by a body of French infantry, who took it from a tribe in Algeria, whose fighting men have been noted through northern Africa for generations. A body of these troops were incorporated with the French army. After 1840 the Zouaves were all native Frenchmen. In the Crimean War they were the *élite* of the French infantry. They retained the picturesque costume of

ELLSWORTH ZOUAVE.

A ZUNI INDIAN.

the African Zouaves, and their peculiar discipline. Their dress consisted of a loose jacket and waistcoat of dark-blue cloth, red Turkish trousers, red fez with yellow tassel, green turban, sky-blue sash, yellow leather leggings, and white gaiters. At the beginning of the American Civil War a few volunteer regiments were uniformed as Zouaves, and were so called; but the costume, which made a conspicuous mark for bullets, was soon exchanged for the more sober blue and gray. The first regiment of Zouaves was that of Colonel Ellsworth—"New York Fire Zouaves." Some were more picturesque in costume, more nearly imitating the African Zouaves, with bagging trousers and fez.

Zubley, JOHN JOACHIM, clergyman; born in St. Gall, Switzerland, Aug. 27, 1724; ordained in 1744; took charge of the First Presbyterian Church in Savannah in 1760, preaching in English, German, and French; was an active patriot at the beginning of the Revolution; was in the Georgia Provincial Congress and the Continental Congress in 1775. He opposed the Declaration of Independence, and after it was adopted he suddenly left Congress, returned to Georgia, took sides with the crown, and having been accused of treasonable correspondence with the royal governor, he concealed himself to avoid popular resentment. He died in Savannah, Ga., July 23, 1781.

Zuni Indians, a North American family occupying the western part of New Mexico; discovered by Fray Marcos de Niza in 1539; and shown by the late FRANK HAMILTON CUSHING (*q. v.*) to be the most interesting body of Indians now on the American continent. They were named by their discoverer "the people of Cibola," and they originally had seven pueblos, the "seven cities of Cibola." As far back as 1540, when the advance of Coronado's army reached that region, these towns were in ruins and deserted. It was K'iakime, the most easterly of these seven cities, that Fray Marcos discovered in 1539. He was killed by its inhabitants, but the monk who accompanied him escaped, and from his pen came the first account of the Zuñis, a narrative that was enlarged and embellished by subsequent travellers. Frank H. Cushing spent several years among them, was adopted by them, and gave to the world the most ac-

curate account of their history and manners and customs that it ever possessed. The other cities were Hawikuh, subdued by Coronado in 1540; Taaiyalone, which soon afterwards submitted to him; Kwakina, the most westerly of the cities, which was abandoned between 1542 and 1580; Hampassawan and K'ianawe, from which the Zuñis were driven by the Apaches and Navajos between 1598 and 1680; and Hawikuhwas was similarly abandoned in 1672. A graphic description of these ancient people and their curious habitations was published in *Harper's Magazine*, under the title of *The Father of the Pueblos*, in June, 1882. In 1898–99 an epidemic caused the death of about 250 of their number, and in 1910 their population was 1,640. See PUEBLOS.

THE END

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